HISTORY OF CALDER ABBEY IN CUMBERLAND.

With a perſpective View of the Ruins of that venerable Edifice.

CALDER Abbey ſtands in the pariſh of St. Bride's, or St. Bridget's, within the manor of Calder, on the river of that name, which is derived from the rill or beck falling down from the mountain, called Caldfell (from its *cold* ſituation) into the dale where the abbey ſtands, and thence into the Iriſh ſea.

This abbey was of the Ciſtertian order, a branch of the Benedictines, and called Ciſtertians, from Ciſtertium or Ciſteaux, in the biſhopric of Chalons in Burgundy, where this order was begun, in the year 1098, by Robert, late abbat of Moleſme in that province; but brought into repute by Stephen Harding, an Engliſhman, third abbat of Ciſteaux, who is therefore reckoned the principal founder. They were alſo called Bernardines, from St. Bernard, who was abbat of Clairvaux or Clareval, in the dioceſe of Langres, about the year 1116, and a great promoter of this order; and white monks, from the colour of their habit, which was a white caſſock with a narrow ſcapulary, and over that a black gown when they went abroad, but a white one, when they went to church. Their monaſteries, which became very numerous in a ſhort time (ſome ſay to the amount of ſix thouſand houſes) were generally founded in ſolitary and uncultivated places, and all dedicated to the bleſſed Virgin. The Ciſtertians came into England in the year 1128, and had their firſt houſe at Waverley, in Surry, and before the diſſolution had eighty-five houſes in this country.

Calder Abbey was founded by Ranulph, ſon of the firſt Ranulph de Meſchiens (earl of Cheſter) in the year 1134. The revenues of it will principally appear from a confirmation of them by Henry III, which was as follows.—By the gift of Ranulph de Meſchiens, the ground on which the abbey ſtands; and Bemerton and Holgate, with the appurtenances; one houſe in Egremont; two ſalt works of Withane; a fiſhing in Derwent; another in Egre; paſture for their cattle in the foreſt of the ſaid Ranulph, as much as they ſhall need; all neceſſaries for their ſalt works and fiſheries, and building of their houſes; and liberty for their hogs without pannage, *i. e.* the money taken for feeding thoſe animals.

By the gift of John, ſon of Ada and Matthew, his brother, all the land of Stavanage with the appurtenances: by the gift of Robert Bonekill, one carucate (from *caruca*, a plough, as much land as can reaſonably be tilled in a year with one plough) of land in leſſer Gilcrux, and twelve acres, and one perch more in the ſame; and one acre of meadow, between the greater and leſſer Gilcrux; and paſture for twenty oxen, twelve cows, and ſix mares, with their young of one year. By the gift of Roger, ſon of William, lands in Ikelinton and Brachampton, and part of the mill of Brachampton. By the gift of Richard de Lucy, one moiety of the mill of Ikelinton, with all things thereunto appertaining. By the gift of Beatrix de Molle, five bovates of land in leſſer Gilcrux, and a fourth part of the mill of the greater Gilcrux. By the gift of Thomas, ſon of Goſpatrick, a toft in Workington, and twenty ſalmon yearly at the feaſt of St. John Baptiſt, and one net in Derwent, between the bridge and the ſea. By the gift of Thomas de Malton, a moiety of the *vill* of Dereham, with the advowſon of the church there.

After the diſſolution of religious houſes, king Henry VIII, by letters patent, dated the 26th of July, in the thirtieth year of his reign, granted to Thomas Leigh, doctor of laws, and his heirs, the demeſne and ſite of the late abbey or manor of Calder, and the church ſteeple, and church-yard

thereof, and all the meſſuages, lands, tenements, houſes, buildings, barns, dovecots, gardens, orchards, waters, ponds, mills, ground and ſoil, as well within as nigh unto the ſite and precinct of the ſaid monaſtery; as alſo all lands, tenements, granges, meadows, paſtures, woods, common of paſture, with divers incloſures by name, containing in the whole 217 acres, at Calder aforeſaid (with divers granges elſewhere) of the clear yearly value of 13l 10s 4d. To hold of the king *in capite*, by the tenth part of one knight's fee, and the rent of 27l 1d, in the name of tenths to be paid into the court of augmentations.

Sir Ferdinando Leigh, grandſon of the ſaid Thomas Leigh, ſold the ſame to ſir Richard Fletcher, baronet; who gave it in marriage with his daughter Barbara to Mr. John Patrickſon, ſecond brother to Mr. Joſeph Patrickſon, of How, eſq. whoſe ſon Richard Patrickſon ſold it to Mr. John Tiffen, of Cockermouth, who gave it to his grandſon John Senhouſe, eſq. the preſent poſſeſſor, and whoſe beautiful manſion adjoining is known by the name of Calder Abbey.

The chief object of the ruins of Calder Abbey, is the tower, ſupported by four fine cluſtered columns, ſeemingly detached from the other parts of the ſtructure. 'In this ſituation,' ſays a late traveller and hiſtorian,' the ſolemn ruins ſeemed to ſtand mourning in their ſacred ſolitude, concealing woe in the ſecluded valley, and bending to the adverſity of ages. Nothing can be more auguſt than the approach to it; for the advance is on a ſtraight line to the tower, with the colonade, which formerly formed a conſiderable part of this edifice. This colonade has five circular arches, ſupported on cluſtered pillars, in length twenty-ſeven paces. A facia remains above the arches, as it anciently ſupported the roof. The tower is ſupported by light cluſtered pillars, of excellent workmanſhip, about twenty-four feet in height, with capitals ornamented with a roll, from whence ſpring very beautiful pointed arches, which formed the cupola or lanthorn. This church has been but ſmall, the width of the choir being only twenty-five feet; the ſquare of the tower twenty-one feet, and the limb of the croſs, which may be traced, twenty-two feet wide. The monaſtery has adjoined to the church; the upper chambers ſhow a row of eight windows to the weſt, and ſeven to the eaſt. There are the remains of three arches, on one ſide, upon the ground-floor, which appears to have belonged to a ſmall cloiſter; the members of the arches are numerous and ſemicircular. At the end, adjoining to the church, is a large window, which appears to have appertained to the chief apartment of the houſe; of the chapter houſe or refectory, only the outſide walls are ſtanding. As theſe fine remains immediately adjoin to Mr. Senhouſe's manſion-houſe, they have been cleaned out, the ground levelled and trimmed, and much of the beauties taken away, by bringing it into its preſent ſmooth order. It is obſervable, that the columns and arches of the tower are uniform; but the columns of the colonade have capitals variouſly ornamented; the third only is decorated with the zig-zag, ſo frequent in the old Saxon architecture. Mr. Senhouſe's manſion is placed in a ſolemn ſituation, ſhadowed from the ſun by the higher walls of the monaſtery, and ſurrounded by theſe awful ruins. It appears that many eminent perſons have been interred here, from the fragments of effigies preſerved, and now placed againſt the walls; but no inſcription, or other evidence remains, ſave the devices on the ſhields, to point out to whoſe tombs theſe ſculptures belonged.'

Above this abbey, eaſtward, ſtand Caldfell and Waſdale fells, mounting aloft, but yielding plenty of paſture for large flocks of ſheep. Silla Park lies a mile lower upon this rill, toward the ſea, which was heretofore a cell belonging to this abbey, where the abbey had a park well

ſtored with deer; and is now a very pleaſant ſeat by the river's ſide, within a mile of the ſea, the land lying in a flat, and a commodious dwelling houſe being there built by Darcy Curwen, eſq. upon whom the ſame was ſettled by his grandfather ſir Henry Curwen, which ſir Henry received by grant from the crown, upon the diſſolution of Chantries.

CHARACTER OF GARRICK.

[By Arthur Murphy, Eſq.]

AS A MANAGER.

THE province of a manager is of more importance than ſeems to be generally imagined. The patentee of a theatre has a great truſt repoſed in him. The public taſte, the honour of old Engliſh authors, and the ſtate of dramatic poetry in general, are all committed to his care. Whether he has raiſed himſelf to that preeminence by the royal grant, or by purchaſe, he is not to conſider himſelf as a man elevated to that rank merely to follow a lucrative trade. A theatre is not a great warehouſe, where ſcenes and dreſſes, ſhow, machinery, and thunder and lightning, are hoarded up for public curioſity. A regular play-houſe is not to be reduced to the low footing of Sadler's-wells, or the exhibitions of Exeter-change. Were that the caſe, it would be ſufficient to have a man at the door to bawl and roar with the lungs of a Stentor, 'Walk in, and ſee the ſhow: walk in, gentlemen and ladies, and ſee harlequin jump through his hat; ſee Mahomet on the ropes; ſee Ramah-Droog, or Three-fingered Jack; and a curious collection of wild exotics, lately imported from Germany.' If the cares of a manager have no higher object in view; 'Make money at any rate' might be the rule of his conduct. He might then do all in his power to debauch the public taſte, and, by throwing aſide all the good plays in our language, make way for whatever ſprings up on the banks of the Danube, and foreign crudities of every kind. The manager knows that the public muſt be amuſed. The people run in crowds to ſee what is preſented to them; and when, by giving nothing worthy of a rational audience, a general apoſtacy from good ſenſe is brought about and eſtabliſhed, a manager may then pretend that he complies with the public taſte.

That this was the abject condition of the drama during the whole adminiſtration of Mr. Rich, is well known. Not one good play was produced at Covent-garden from the days of Booth, Wilkes, and Cibber. About the year 1737, a ſubſcription was ſet on foot by ladies of faſhion, who were tired of harlequin, and all his tricks, and wiſhed to reſtore Shakſpeare to the ſtage. A ſimilar inſtitution would do honour to the preſent age; it would recall us to the good old taſte for rational entertainment: and the beſt plays in the Engliſh language would no longer be in danger of ſinking into oblivion. Should the taſte of our theatres continue to degenerate from truth and nature, it is to be hoped that the ladies of the preſent time will imitate the example left upon record, and ſtop the inundation of nonſenſe, which has for ſometime been the reigning faſhion.

'We go to plays,' ſays lord Shafteſbury, 'as to other ſhows, and frequent the theatres as we do the booths; and this may be ſome occaſion of the lazineſs and negligence of authors, who, obſerving this need, which our curioſity brings on us, and, making an exact calculation in the way of trade, feed us from hand to mouth, reſolving not to be at the pains of more correctneſs or wit than is neceſſary to carry on the traffic; but they have power to work on our inclinations, and may know by certain tokens, that their audience is diſpoſed to receive nobler ſub-

jects, and to taſte a better manner than that, which, through indulgence to themſelves more than to the world, they are generally pleaſed to make their choice.'

What the noble author has ſaid of poets, is equally applicable to our modern managers. It is in their power, by reviving Shakſpeare and Otway, Congreve and Vanburgh, to ſhow that they are above the mere traffic, and ſcorn to keep a muſh-room-bed for the production of traſh, not fit to be brought to market.

That this was not the caſe in Garrick's time, is an honour to his memory. He ſuffered no invaſion from German poets: they were left to amuſe the Croats and Pandours. The Engliſh ſtage, after Booth and Cibber, was reduced to the loweſt ebb, but from the time when our famous Roſcius appeared at Goodman's-fields, dramatic poetry retrieved its honour, and Lun and his favourite harlequin gave way to a juſt repreſentation of nature—to Shakſpeare and Garrick. The firſt ſeaſon, in which he commenced manager, began in September 1747. From that time a new era opened on mankind, and the ſtage was revived in all its luſtre. It is not to be ſuppoſed, nor indeed expected, that he ſhould have no views to his own intereſt, and that of Mr. Lacy, his partner in the patent. But he did not conſider himſelf as a trader in poſſeſſion of a great warehouſe: he felt a nobler motive. To make truth, as Dr. Johnſon expreſſed it, diffuſe her radiance from the ſtage, was his great ambition. This was known to Mr. William Whitehead, who addreſſed an elegant poem to him, with a fair deſign to confirm his reſolution, and perſuade him to perſevere in ſo great an undertaking. The two following lines made a deep impreſſion on Garrick's mind:

A nation's taſte depends on you;
Perhaps, a nation's virtue too.

He adopted the ſentiment, which was congenial to his own diſpoſition, and ever after made it the rule of his conduct. A true taſte and manly reliſh for moral and inſtructive compoſition ſoon prevailed, and the public ear was formed to refined pleaſures, to the true ſublime, to the tones of nature, and harmonious numbers. Our great reformer of the ſtage baniſhed rant and noiſe, and the ſwell of unnatural elocution from tragedy, and buffoonery from comedy. Shakſpeare roſe, as it were, from his tomb, and broke out at once in all his luſtre, *exortus uti ætherius ſol.* A ſubſcription among ladies of quality was no longer neceſſary. A great tragic poet, according to Horace, performs greater feats than the moſt expert rope-dancer.

Ille per extentum funem mihi poſſe videtur
Ire poeta, meum qui pectus inaniter angit,
Irritat, mulcet, falſis terroribus implet,
Ut magus, et mode me Thebis, modo ponit Athenis.

Pope's verſion is beautiful;

'Tis he, who gives my heart a thouſand pains,
Can make me feel each paſſion that he feigns,
Enrage, compoſe, with more than magic art,
With pity and with terror tear my heart,
And ſnatch me o'er the earth, and through the air,
To Thebes, to Athens, when he will, and where.

According to Horace, Shakſpeare may be called a great tragic rope-dancer, and the public were taught by Garrick to prefer him to the vaulting Turk. The pleaſure of the eye was transferred to the ear. To accompliſh this great reform was Garrick's plan through the whole courſe of his management. He corrected the public taſte, and by inceſſant labour made the ſtage the ſchool of virtue and uſeful knowledge; and this aſſertion is ſo far from being a ſtrained panegyric, that it will be found, upon due conſideration, to be founded on truth.

The end which tragedy has in view, is to preſent a true diſplay of happineſs or miſery, reſulting from

human actions. We are taught by the cataſtrophe to avoid the errors that involve the agents in certain ruin, and to purſue the road that leads to happineſs. A generous ſympathy diffuſes itſelf through the whole audience; our ſocial feelings are kept in exerciſe; we rejoice to ſee virtue ſoar above tyranny, oppreſſion and the ſtratagems of ill-deſigning men; and when vilainy ſucceeds, we burn with indignation. By a variety of mixed emotions, we are kept in that happy ſtate of mind, that feels, with conſcious pleaſure, that the affections, implanted in us by the hand of nature, are awake within us, and that our inward frame is preſerved in due balance and regular order.

Nor is this all; by a juſt picture of former times, and the characters of men, who figured on the ſtage of the world, our knowledge is greatly increaſed. From a good tragedy men reſort to the page of hiſtory, and there acquire a ſtock of information, which might otherwiſe eſcape their notice. Garrick ſaw theſe conſequences in their true light. He conſidered tragedy as a mirror held up, in which the frequenters of the theatre might ſee paſſing before them the various tranſactions of ancient times. For that reaſon, he was ever anxious to bring forward the productions of our beſt authors. Dramatic poetry, in his opinion, was an important branch of polite literature, in which the honour of his country was concerned. It was in vain that Voltaire, with a weak endeavour to aggrandize himſelf, employed his pen to depreciate the genius of ſuch a poet as Shakſpeare: it was in vain that he charged him with monſtrous farces; in vain he took upon him to deny all dramatic genius to the Engliſh nation. Some of the beſt plays of Racine had juſtice done them in the tranſlation, and alſo on the ſtage; and ſeveral of Voltaire's tragedies were repreſented with due care and attention. Garrick, Mrs. Cibber, and Mrs. Pritchard, exerted their beſt abilities in Mahomet, Merope, and Zara. The pieces were reſpectable; the unities of action, time, and place, were ſtrictly obſerved; but the ſpeeches, even in ſcenes of vehemence, were long, cold, and tedious, in a ſtile of declamation, without paſſion, warmth, or energy. How different are the great ſcenes of Shakſpeare? That extraordinary man either had not read, or paid no regard to the precepts of Ariſtotle. He broke through the primary rules of that philoſophic critic, but he never forgot the grand rule of all, which is, to rouſe, to pierce the heart, and raiſe the paſſions to their full tumult of emotion.

This is the true end of tragedy; and in this point of view, our immortal bard is ſuperior to the writers of every age, from the moſt flouriſhing periods of Greece and Rome, down to Corneille, Racine, Crebillon, and the ſelf-applauded Voltaire. Garrick, with exultation, ſaw that this was the caſe; he ſaw, moreover, that we had a conſtellation of eminent poets; he gloried in the triumph of his country, and through the whole courſe of his time made it his ſtudy to make the tragedies of our beſt authors the ſtaple commodity of the theatre.

His cares were at the ſame time extended to comedy, that other great province of the drama, in which the manners are the main object. The poet of genius, who wiſhes to ſhow himſelf a maſter in his art, makes it his ſtudy to exhibit the turnings and windings of the inward frame; the temper of the man; the foibles that warp and diſtort his conduct; and the humours, that gather to a head, and render him odd, extravagant, and eccentric. Farce cannot be deemed an exact and legitimate ſpecies of the drama; it delights in exaggeration, and, in every portrait, enlarges the features beyond their true proportion; inſtead of real character, it gives an overcharged caricature; but the ſtrong colouring has its moral uſe,

and by the power of well-directed ridicule contributes to the good of ſociety.

Theſe ſeveral branches of the drama Garrick found committed to his care. They flouriſhed under his management, as we have ſeen in the hiſtory of his theatrical life, and our good old authors delighted the public ear. Nor was his attention confined to the productions of the laſt century: by his liberal behaviour he excited a ſpirit of emulation among the moſt celebrated claſſical ſcholars of his time. His playhouſe, for ſome years, held no more than two hundred and twenty pounds; during that period, the charge on the author's night was ſixty guineas. In 1762, the houſe was enlarged to a receipt of three hundred and thirty five. In conſequence of that alteration, he raiſed the deduction from the author's benefit to ſeventy guineas, with ſome ſmall additional articles. He ſcorned to alledge, that the architect's bill amounted to a large ſum, and, under that pretext, to increaſe his demand; on the contrary, it was with him a fixed principle, that authors were entitled to the emolument of their labours, and by that generous way of thinking, he held out an invitation to men of genius. Upon this occaſion, it will not be improper to aſk, when the modern theatres are enlarged to an enormous ſize, and the public, with a ſpirit that does them honour, agreed to the propoſal for advancing the price of admittance, at ſuch a time can the writers for the ſtage boaſt of the ſame encouragement?

Garrick did not confine his liberality to the authors, who ſupplied him with novelty. He perſevered in the ſame line of conduct to the performers employed in his ſervice. To ſee them reap the profits of their induſtry was his conſtant wiſh. To ſerve their intereſts, he was ſure to act ſome favourite character on their benefit-nights. Not content with giving them that aſſiſtance, we have ſeen his muſe employed in various farces to be acted for their advantage. By theſe means, he ſaw his actors happy in their ſituation. Men of genius from Oxford and Cambridge reſorted with pleaſure to a manager, who was ever ready to give them the reception due to gentlemen and ſcholars. During part of the time, Covent-garden theatre was the palace of Lun and harlequin; under Mr. Beard, who ſucceeded to Rich, it was an opera-houſe; but Drury-lane was the ſeat of the muſes. Dramatic poetry was univerſally in vogue, and ſerved as a ſupplement to the laws, to give the nobleſt precepts of civil and moral conduct. Even after his retreat from the ſtage, he ſtill continued to extend his cares and beſt aſſiſtance to the new managers. Of this Mr. Sheridan was highly ſenſible, as appears in the elegant poem dedicated to Garrick's memory.

GARRICK'S CHARACTER, AS A MAN.

IT is well known, that he was a man of the moſt lively turn, poſſeſſed of a great fund of wit, poliſhed in his manners, and admired by his numerous acquaintance for his amiable qualities. His natural affections, whether of the ſelfiſh or ſocial kind, were kept within due bounds, always on an even balance. In the outſet of life, when his means were ſlender, he was a ſtrict obſerver of economy. His enemies gave it the name of avarice. In the courſe of time, when wealth flowed in upon him in a tide of ſucceſs, they ſaw their error, but were unwilling to retract it. As ſoon as his circumſtances could afford it, he was diſtinguiſhed by hoſpitality and munificence. He loved his friends, and his purſe was often at their ſervice. There are gentlemen now living, who, in the hour of need, experienced his liberality. He lent them money, and though they afterward behaved with honour, they muſt allow, that at the time of the tranſaction, their ſecurity was rather precarious. Mr. Chriſtie, of Pall-Mall, relates an inſtance,

that he himſelf experienced, of Garrick's generous way of thinking, and he tells it at this day, with a heart overflowing with gratitude. He had ſuffered a loſs to a very large amount by the death of Chaſe Price, eſq. a gentleman, at that time, univerſally admired for his wit and humour. It happened that Chriſtie took a ride to Hampton with his friend Albany Wallis, who walked in the garden with Mr. Garrick, and told him the particulars of his friend's diſtreſs. After dinner, Garrick called Chriſtie into another room. 'And what,' ſaid he, 'is this ſtory that I hear from Mr. Wall's? If five thouſand pounds will extricate you out of your difficulty, come here with Wallis any day you pleaſe, and you ſhall have the money.' This is the account of a living witneſs, whoſe grateful remembrance is an honour to his character.

To merit in diſtreſs Garrick's benevolence was ſure to be extended. Dr. Johnſon has often been heard to ſay, that when he ſaw a worthy family in diſtreſs, it was his cuſtom to collect charity among ſuch of his friends, as he knew to be in a ſtate of affluence: and, on thoſe occaſions, he received from Garrick more than from any other perſon, and always more than he expected. It is unneceſſary to add, that he was a good brother, and the beſt of huſbands. One paſſion he had, which gained an entire aſcendant over him, and that was an eager anxiety about his fame. It has been ſaid by this writer, in a former work, that he lived in a *whiſpering gallery*. Inſidious tatlers and ill-deſigning tale-bearers had his ear, and often occaſioned ſtrange revolutions in his temper. This failing may be called the *avarice of fame*, but it was his only avarice: *præter laudem nullius avarus*. To his many amiable qualities, he added thoſe accompliſhments, which are emphatically called by Cicero, *virtutes leniores*, and by a philoſopher of our own, the *leſſer morals*. Polite and liberal converſation was his delight. Literature and dramatic poetry were to the laſt his favourite topics. Political diſcuſſions he wiſhed to avoid. If the company choſe thoſe ſubjects, he liſtened with politeneſs, but was guarded in what he ſaid. True to his king and conſtitution, he declined all diſputes about whig and tory. Mr. Pelham was the miniſter whom he admired, as may be ſeen in his ode on the death of that great man. The poem has no unnatural flights, no fiction, no gigantic phraſeology; it is the language of the heart, *ſimplex munditiis*, plain and elegant, neat and pathetic.

Garrick's political principles are diſplayed in his tributary verſes on Mr. Pelham, but made no part of his converſation. General topics were more agreeable to his way of thinking. His gaiety was brilliant, and always within the bounds of decorum. A wit, without ſpleen, or ill-nature; a ſcholar, without pride, or pedantry; a maſter of ridicule, but free from perſonal malice. He diverted his company, without oſtentation, or affected airs of ſuperiority; always pleaſant, lively, and ingenious. A ſtranger to all factions, unconnected with parties or their ambitious leaders, he was contented with the character of an honeſt member of ſociety, who had the welfare of his country warm at his heart. His political principles are contained in a prologue ſpoken by him at the end of the ſeaſon in June 1761, ſoon after his preſent majeſty aſcended the throne. Garrick's principles were univerſally known; his death was lamented by all who had felt the powers of his tranſcendent genius, and in that number may be reckoned a female mourner, a lady of diſtinguiſhed talents, who publiſhed a pathetic elegy on his death. That a man of his amiable character lived in the higheſt favour with the firſt men in the kingdom, cannot be deemed matter of doubt or wonder. Were it neceſſary to prove the fact, a muſter-roll of illuſtrious names might be produced.

ORIGIN OF CITIES.

CITY, according to one author, is a town corporate, which has a biſhop and cathedral church: and is called *civitas*, in regard it is governed by juſtice and order of magiſtracy; *oppidum*, becauſe it contains a great number of inhabitants; and *urbs*, becauſe it is in due form ſurrounded with walls. Kingdoms have been ſaid to contain as many cities as they have ſeats of archbiſhops and biſhops; but, according to Blount, *city* is a word that has obtained ſince the conqueſt; for, in the time of the Saxons, there were no cities, but all the great towns were called *burghs*, and even London was called *Londonburgh*, as the capital of Scotland is called Edinburgh. And long after the Conqueſt, the word *city* is uſed promiſcuouſly with the *burgh*, as in the charter of Leiceſter, where it is both called *civitas* and *burgus*: which ſhows that thoſe writers were miſtaken, who tell us every city was or is a biſhop's ſee. And though the word city ſignifies with us ſuch a town corporate as hath uſually a biſhop and a cathedral church, yet it is not always ſo.

As to the ancient ſtate of cities and villages, while the feudal policy prevailed, they held of ſome great lord on whom they depended for protection, and were ſubject to his arbitrary juriſdiction. The inhabitants were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They could not diſpoſe of the effects which their own induſtry had acquired, either by a latter will, or by any deed executed during their life. They had no right to appoint guardians for their children during their minority. They were not permitted to marry without purchaſing the conſent of the lord on whom they depended. If once they had commenced a law-ſuit, they durſt not terminate it by an accommodation, becauſe that would have deprived the lord, in whoſe court they pleaded, of the perquiſites due to him on paſſing his ſentence. Services of various kinds, no leſs diſgraceful than oppreſſive, were exacted from them without mercy or moderation. The ſpirit of induſtry was checked in ſome cities by abſurd regulations, and in others by unreaſonable exactions; nor would the narrow and oppreſſive maxims of a military ariſtocracy have permitted it ever to riſe to any degree of height or vigour.

The freedom of cities was firſt eſtabliſhed in Italy, owing principally to the introduction of commerce. As ſoon as they began to turn their attention toward this object, and to conceive ſome idea of the advantages they might derive from it, they became impatient to ſhake off the yoke of their inſolent lords, and to eſtabliſh among themſelves ſuch a free and equal government as would render property ſecure and induſtry flouriſhing. The German emperors, eſpecially thoſe of the Franconian and Swabian lines, as the ſeat of their government was far diſtant from Italy, poſſeſſed a feeble and imperfect juriſdiction in that country. Their perpetual quarrels, either with the popes or their own turbulent vaſſals, diverted their attention from the interior police of Italy, and gave conſtant employment for their arms. Theſe circumſtances induced ſome of the Italian cities, toward the beginning of the 11th century, to aſſume new privileges; to unite together more cloſely; and to form themſelves into bodies politic, under the government of laws eſtabliſhed by common conſent. The rights which many cities acquired by bold or fortunate uſurpations, others purchaſed from the emperors, who deemed themſelves gainers when they received large ſums for immunities which they were no longer able to withhold; and ſome cities obtained them gratuitouſly from the facility or generoſity of the princes on whom they depended. The great increaſe of wealth which the cruſades brought into Italy, occaſioned a new

kind of fermentation and activity in the minds of the people, and excited ſuch a general paſſion for liberty and independence, that, before the concluſion of the laſt cruſade, all the conſiderable cities in that country had either purchaſed or had extorted large immunities from the emperors.

This innovation was not long known in Italy before it made its way into France. Louis the Groſs, in order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals who controlled or gave law to the crown, firſt adopted the plan of conferring new privileges on the towns ſituate within his own domains. Theſe privileges were called Charters of Community, by which he enfranchiſed the inhabitants, aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude, and formed them into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination. Theſe magiſtrates had the right of adminiſtering juſtice within their own precincts; of levying taxes: of embodying and training to arms the militia of the town, which took the field when required by the ſovereign, under the command of officers appointed by the community. The great barons imitated the example of their monarch, and granted like immunities to the towns within their territories. They had waſted ſuch great ſums in their expeditions to the Holy Land, that they were eager to lay hold on this new expedient for raiſing money by the ſale of thoſe charters of liberty. Though the conſtitution of communities was as repugnant to their maxims of policy as it was adverſe to their power, they diſregarded remote conſequences in order to obtain preſent relief. In leſs than two centuries, ſervitude was aboliſhed in moſt of the cities of France, and they became free corporations, inſtead of dependent villages, without juriſdiction or privileges. Much about the ſame period, the great cities of Germany began to acquire like immunities, and laid the foundation of their preſent liberty and independence. The practice ſpread quickly over Europe, and was adopted in Spain, England, Scotland, and all other feudal kingdoms.

The Spaniſh hiſtorians are almoſt entirely ſilent concerning the origin and progreſs of communities in that kingdom; ſo that it is impoſſible to fix, with any degree of certainty, the time and manner of their firſt introduction there. It appears, however, from Mariana, that in the year 1350, eighteen cities had obtained a ſeat in the cortes of Caſtile. In Arragon, cities ſeem early to have acquired extenſive immunities, together with a ſhare in the legiſlature. In the year 1118, the citizens of Saragoſſa had not only obtained practical liberty, but were declared to be of equal rank with the nobles of the ſecond claſs; and many other immunities, unknown to perſons in their rank of life in other parts of Europe, were conferred upon them. In England, the eſtabliſhment of communities, or corporations, was poſterior to the conqueſt. The practice was borrowed from France, and the privileges granted by the crown were perfectly ſimilar to thoſe above enumerated. It is not improbable, that ſome of the towns in England were formed into corporations under the Saxon kings; and that the charters granted by the kings of the Norman race were not charters of enfranchiſement from a ſtate of ſlavery, but a confirmation of privileges which they had already enjoyed. The Engliſh cities, however, were very inconſiderable in the 12th century. The following is a clear proof of this. Fitzſtephen, a contemporary author, gives a deſcription of the city of London in the reign of Henry II, and the terms in which he ſpeaks of its trade, its wealth, and the number of its inhabitants, would ſuggeſt no inadequate idea of its ſtate at preſent, when it is the greateſt and moſt opulent city in Europe. But all ideas of grandeur and magnificence are merely comparative. It appears from Pe-

ter of Blois, archdeacon of London, who flouriſhed in the ſame reign, and who had good opportunity of being informed, that the city, of which Fitz-ſtephen gives ſuch a pompous account, contained no more than 40,000 inhabitants. The other cities were ſmall in proportion, and in no condition to extort any extenſive privileges.

On the UTILITY *of* BIRDS *in* DESTROYING INSECTS *and other Productions hurtful to Mankind.*

WHEN the deſtruction and waſte of the fruits of the earth, occaſioned by birds and inſects, is duly conſidered, we ceaſe to wonder at the anxiety of agriculturiſts and others in ſeeking out means for the deſtruction ſometimes of the one and ſometimes of the other, according as particular circumſtances have made the havoc of either more or leſs obſervable on their fields. Indeed, on a haſty view of the ſubject, the only matter that ſtrikes the mind with ſurpriſe is, that unwearied and unceaſing means have not been generally followed to extirpate many of thoſe peſts which all mankind ſeem equally to have an intereſt in deſtroying; for, every thing that diminiſhes the profits of the farmer adds to the price of the neceſſaries of life; and, conſequently, adds to the quantum of labour performed by every individual.

But, in waging war againſt the feathered tribe there ought to be ſome diſcrimination, and the fact, on a cloſe examination of the ſubject, will turn out to be, that we ought to form an alliance with ſome of them, as far as protection toward them can favour that end, with the view of the auxiliary aid they may afford us in extirpating the hoſtile bands of worms, inſects, and caterpillars, which often deſtroy the very germs of vegetable life.

We are led to theſe reflections by peruſing Profeſſor Barton's Fragments of the Natural Hiſtory of Pennſylvania, lately publiſhed at Philadelphia. The utility of the following remarks on *inſects, as the food of birds*, is our inducement for laying them before our readers; and the more ſo as ſeveral of the birds are natives of our own country, and a careful obſervation of the habits, &c. of other Britiſh birds would in a ſhort time enable the natural hiſtorian to point out ſuch of them as ought to be protected even by law. We need hardly obſerve, that many which partly live on ſeeds, ought, nevertheleſs, to be included among the friends of mankind, on account of the greater benefit they yield by alſo deſtroying many inſects, grubs, and other noxious vermin.

'It may in the firſt place be obſerved,' ſays Dr. Barton, 'that inſects appear to be the firſt food of almoſt all the birds of our country. The more I have inquired, the more I have been convinced, that almoſt all birds live, in ſome meaſure, upon inſects. Even thoſe ſpecies which conſume conſiderable quantities of ſeeds, berries, and fruit, alſo conſume large quantities of inſects: and there are reaſons to believe, that others, whoſe principal food is the nectar of plants, alſo live partly upon theſe inſects. Thus Mr. Brandis found the veſtiges of inſects in the ſtomach of the trochilus, or humming-bird, one of the laſt birds one would have ſuſpected of feeding on animal food.

'The greater number of our ſmaller birds, of the order of *paſſeres*, ſeem to demand our attention and protection. Some of them feed pretty entirely upon inſects, and others upon a mixed food; that is, inſects, and the vegetable ſeeds, &c. Many of them contribute much to our pleaſure by the melody of their notes. I believe the injury they do us is but ſmall compared to the good they render us. I ſhall mention, under ſix different heads, a few of the uſeful birds of this and ſome other orders.

'I. *Muſcicapa acadica* of Gmelin: This is the leſſer creſted fly-catcher of Pennant. It is called, in Pennſylvania, the leſſer or wood-pewe. This little bird builds in woods and in foreſts. After the young have left their neſts, the parents conduct them to the gardens and habitations of men. Here the whole brood dwells in trees near the houſes, where they are fed with the common houſe-fly, and other inſects that are caught by the old birds. The young ones are ſoon capable of obtaining their food in the ſame way. This ſpecies of muſcicapa viſits us in the ſpring, and commonly continues with us until late in September, when it retires ſoutherly to winter.

'II. The *motacilla ſialis*, or blue-bird, feeds principally, if not entirely, upon inſects, both ſuch as are flying and ſuch as are reptile. It is ſaid, they eat currants.

'III. Moſt of our ſpecies of *picus*, or wood-pecker, appear to me to be very uſeful in deſtroying inſects, particularly thoſe which injure our foreſt and orchard trees. It is true, theſe birds are ſometimes injurious to us, by eating ſome of our fineſt fruits, particularly our cherries, and therefore pains are taken to expel them from our gardens. But they devour vaſt numbers of inſects, particularly ſome of thoſe ſpecies which prove ſo deſtructive to the trunk of the trees, ſuch as the coleopterous inſects, which, perhaps, do as much miſchief as the caterpillars.

'IV. As a devourer of pernicious inſects, one of the moſt uſeful birds with which I am acquainted, is the houſe-wren, or *certhia familiaris*: This little bird ſeems peculiarly fond of the ſociety of man, and it muſt be confeſſed that it is often protected by his intereſted care. From obſerving the uſefulneſs of this bird in deſtroying inſects, it has long been a cuſtom, in many parts of our country, to fix a ſmall box at the end of a long pole, in gardens, about houſes, &c. as a place for it to build in. In theſe boxes they build and hatch their young. When the young are hatched, the parent birds feed them with a variety of different inſects, particularly ſuch as are injurious in gardens. One of my friends was at the trouble to obſerve the number of times a pair of theſe birds came from their box, and returned with inſects for their young. He found that they did this from forty to ſixty times in an hour; and, in one particular hour, the birds carried food to their young ſeventy-one times. In this buſineſs they were engaged the greater part of the day; for twelve hours. Taking the medium, therefore, of fifty times in an hour, it appeared that a ſingle pair of theſe birds took from the cabbage, ſallad, beans, peas, and other vegetables in the garden, at leaſt ſix hundred inſects in the courſe of one day. This calculation proceeds upon the ſuppoſition, that the two birds took each only a ſingle inſect each time. But it is highly probable they often took ſeveral at a time.

'The ſpecies of certhia of which I am ſpeaking generally, hatches twice during the courſe of the ſummer. They are very numerous about Philadelphia, and in other parts of the United States.

'The fact juſt related is well calculated to ſhow the importance of attending to the preſervation of ſome of our native birds. The eſculent vegetables of a whole garden may, perhaps, be preſerved from the depredations of different ſpecies of inſects by ten or fifteen pair of theſe ſmall birds: and, independently of this eſſential ſervice, they are an extremely agreeable companion to man; for their note is pleaſing. A gentleman, in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, thinks he has already reaped much advantage from the ſervices of theſe wrens. About his fruit trees he has placed a number of boxes for their neſts. In theſe boxes they very readily breed, and feed themſelves and their young with the inſects which are ſo deſtructive to the various kinds of fruit trees, and other vegetables.

'V. The ſervices of the ibis, in

devouring the reptiles of Egypt, are well known. They procured to this bird a veneration and regard which form an intereſting fact in its hiſtory, and in the hiſtory of human ſuperſtitions. The ſtorks are, perhaps, not leſs uſeful. Pliny tells us, that theſe birds were ſo much regarded for deſtroying ſerpents, that, in Theſſaly, in his age, it was a capital crime to kill them, and that the puniſhment was the ſame as that for murder. Virgil hints at the uſefulneſs of the ſtork when he deſcribed it as 'longis inviſa colubris.' In Holland, even in our times, they go wild, protected by the government, from a ſenſe of their uſefulneſs in the way I have mentioned.

'In Britain, if it were not for the herons, and ſome other birds of this tribe, the frogs and toads, and other reptiles, would increaſe to ſo great a degree as to prove a real nuiſance. North-America bounds with birds of this order; and we even have ſome ſpecies of ibis very nearly allied to the ibis of Egypt—ſuch as the *tantalus loculator*, or wood-pelican, the *tantalus ruber*, or ſcarlet ibis, the *tantalus fuſcus*, or brown ibis, and the *tantalus albus*, or white ibis. Mr. Bartram aſſures us, that the firſt of theſe birds feeds 'on ſerpents, young alligators, frogs, and other reptiles. It is commonly ſeen near the banks of great rivers, in vaſt marſhes or meadows, eſpecially ſuch as are cauſed by inundations, and alſo in the vaſt deſerted rice plantations.' This bird, both with regard to his general aſpect, and his manners and habits, may be conſidered as the ibis of America. In the midſt of all their ſuperſtitions, I do not find, however, that the native Americans have ever paid any particular regard to this bird. I cannot learn that any of theſe ſpecies of tantalus have ever been ſeen in Pennſylvania.

'VI. Some of the birds of the vultur kind are extremely uſeful to man, by deſtroying immenſe quantities of carrion, which ſerve to vitiate the air, and, perhaps, in ſome inſtances, to give riſe to malignant epidemics. The *vultur aura*, or turkey-buzzard of our country, is one of the moſt uſeful of theſe birds. In Virginia it is protected by a law of that ſtate. The abbé Clavigero ſpeaks of the uſefulneſs of the *cozcaquauhtli*, or king of the zopilots, the *vultur papa* of Linneus. 'The zopilot,' ſays this writer, 'is a moſt uſeful bird to that country (Mexico); for they not only clear the fields, but attend the crocodiles, and deſtroy the eggs which the females of thoſe dreadful amphibious animals leave in the ſand, to be hatched by the heat of the ſun. The deſtruction of ſuch a bird ought to be prohibited under ſevere penalties.'

'I am ſenſible that theſe few facts, which are thrown together without any regard to order, can be of little uſe, except in as far as they may turn the attention of other perſons, who poſſeſs more leiſure and information than myſelf, to the ſubject, which is at once curious and important. It appears to me to be a ſubject peculiarly intereſting to my countrymen. Perhaps few parts of the world are more infeſted with noxious inſects than the United States. The greater number of theſe inſects are, I believe, natives of the country, though our partiality to the ſoil which gave us birth has not always allowed us to acknowledge this truth. Thus we give to the Heſſians the honour of introducing among us that moſt pernicious inſect, the Heſſian-fly, which, for ſeveral years, has committed, and ſtill commits, ſuch alarming ravages on ſome of our moſt valuable grains, particularly the wheat and the rye. But this inſect is, undoubtedly, a native of America.

'Many of the pernicious inſects of the United States ſeem to be increaſing inſtead of diminiſhing. Some of theſe inſects, which originally confined their ravages to the native or wild vegetables, have ſince begun their depredations upon the foreign vegetables, which are often more agreeable to their palates. Thus the *bruchus piſi*, or pea-fly, is a native,

and ſeems originally to have fed, in a great meaſure unnoticed, upon the indigenous vegetables which are allied to the pea: but ſince the introduction of this laſt among us, it is the principal, if not the only, vegetable which ſuffers from the ravages of this inſect. The Heſſian-fly could not originally have inhabited the wheat, the rye, and other ſimilar gramina of this kind, for theſe vegetables are not natives of America. It is now more formidable to us than would be an army of twenty thouſand Heſſians, or of any other twenty thouſand hirelings, ſupplied with all the implements of war. The caterpillar, which has begun its ravages upon the leaves of the Lombardy poplar, that contributes ſo much to beautify our city, is, moſt probably, a native of our woods. It prefers this fine foreigner to the leſs palatable leaves upon which it has been formerly accuſtomed to feed. Other inſtances of this kind might be mentioned. They ſhow how very neceſſary it is to watch the migrations of inſects from the native to the introduced vegetables; and they teach us a truth, not, I think, ſufficiently attended to by naturaliſts, that different kinds of inſects are much leſs confined to vegetables of the ſame ſpecies, or to the ſpecies of the ſame genus, than has been commonly imagined. It is certain, that the ſame ſpecies of inſects, in America, often feeds indiſcriminately, and in ſucceſſion, upon plants of very oppoſite genera, and even of very different natural orders.

'Hitherto too little progreſs has been made among us in the diſcovery of remedies for the great miſchiefs occaſioned by inſects. The ſubject has not been examined with ſufficient attention. It has given place to diſcuſſions and inquiries of very inferior utility; and, I fear, it will not claim all that induſtrious attention which it ſo well merits, until the evil ſhall have ſpread ſtill further. It is doubtleſs difficult, but it is by no means impoſſible, to prevent the ravages of noxious inſects. In this important buſineſs ſomething has already been done in our country. We have diſcovered a method of diminiſhing the depredations of the little bug, called cucumber-fly, which proves ſo deſtructive to the cucurbitaceous vines, particularly thoſe of the cucumber and muſk-melon. By manuring our wheat lands, and thereby increaſing the ſtrength and vigour of the wheat, we have leſſened the evil of the Heſſian-fly. By ſuſpending, to our young apple, and other trees, pieces of tow impregnated with a mixture of brimſtone and train-oil, we have learned how to frighten away the periodical locuſts (*cicada ſeptemdecim* of Linneus), which often do ſo much injury to our orchards. The American Philoſophical Society, by calling the attention of the public to the decay of our peach-trees, has brought us to a better acquaintance with the cauſes of this decay, and with the means of preventing it. Inſects are, no doubt, one of theſe cauſes. We have made ſome progreſs in preventing the miſchief of the *bruchus piſi*, or pea-fly, which proves ſo deſtructive to one of the fineſt eſculent vegetables. But all that has yet been done is very little, compared to that which remains to be done. The ſubject is as new as it is important.'

A TREATISE *on the* CULTIVATION *of the* VINE, *and the Method of making* WINES. *By* C. Chaptal.

THERE are few natural productions employed by man as aliment, which he has not altered or modified by preparations which remove them from their primitive ſtate. Corn, fleſh, and fruits, are all ſubjected to a commencement of fermentation before they are uſed as nouriſhment; and peculiar qualities are given even to objects of luxury, caprice, or whim, ſuch as tobacco and perfumes.

But it is in the fabrication of liquors

in particular that man has diſplayed the greateſt ſagacity: all are the work of his own creation, water and milk excepted. Nature never furniſhes ſpiritous liquors: it ſuffers the grapes to rot on the ſtems, while art converts the juice into an agreeable, tonic, and nouriſhing liquor called wine.

It is difficnlt to aſcertain the preciſe period when mankind began to make wine. This valuable diſcovery ſeems to be loſt in the darkneſs of antiquity, and the origin of wine has its fables, like all other things which have become objects of general utility.

We are told by Athenæus that Oreſtes, the ſon of Deucalion, came to reign at Ethna, where he planted vines. Hiſtorians agree in conſidering Noah as the firſt who made wine in Illyria, Saturn in Crete, Bacchus in India, Oſiris in Egypt, and king Geryon in Spain. A poet, who aſſigns every thing to a divine ſource, is inclined to believe that after the deluge God granted wine to man to conſole him in his miſery, and he expreſſes himſelf thus reſpecting its origin:

Omnia vaſtatis ergo cum cerneret arvis
Deſolata Deus, nobis felicia vini
Dona dedit, triſtes hominum quo munere fovit
Reliquias: mundi ſolatus vite ruinam.
Vanerii Præd. Ruſt.

Even the etymology of the word wine has given riſe to different opinions among authors; but from that long ſeries of fables with which the poets, who are always bad hiſtorians, have obſcured the origin of wine, we may collect ſome valuable truths, and among theſe we may venture to claſs the following:

The earlieſt authors not only atteſt that they were acquainted with the art of making wine, but that they had ſome very correct ideas in regard to its different qualities and virtues, and the various ways of preparing it. The heathen deities, we are told, delighted in nectar and ambroſia.

Dioſcorides ſpeaks of the *Cæculum dulce*, the *Surrentinum auſterum*, &c. and Pliny deſcribes two kinds of Alban wine, the one mild, and the other ſharp and tart. The celebrated Falernian wine, according to Athenæus, was alſo of two kinds. The ancients were even acquainted with briſk wines, as appears by the following paſſage of Virgil:

——————Ill, impiger hauſit
Spumantem pateram——————.

When we read what hiſtorians have left us reſpecting the origin of the wines poſſeſſed by the ancient Romans, it ſeems doubtful whether their ſucceſſors have added any thing to their knowledge on that ſubject. They procured their beſt wines from Campania, called at preſent Terra di Lavori, in the kingdom of Naples. The Falernian and Maſſic wine were the produce of vineyards planted on the hills around Mondragon, at the foot of which runs the Garigliano, formerly called the Iris. The wines of Amicla and Fondi were made in the neighbourhood of Gaeta, the grapes of Sueſſa grew near the ſea, &c. But notwithſtanding the great variety of wine produced by the ſoil of Italy, luxury ſoon induced the Romans to ſeek for that of Aſia, and their tables were loaded with the valuable wines of Chio, Leſbos, Epheſus, Cos, and Clazomene.

The earlieſt hiſtorians who have furniſhed us with any poſitive facts reſpecting the making of wines, leave us no reaſon to doubt that the Greeks had made conſiderable progreſs in the art of preparing and preſerving them. They diſtinguiſhed them into two kinds, *protopon* and *deuterion*, according as they were produced from the juice which flowed from the grapes before they were trod upon, or from the juice expreſſed by treading them. The Romans afterward denoted theſe two kinds of wine by the terms *vinum primarium* and *vinum ſecundum*.

When we read with attention what Ariſtotle and Galen have handed down to us on the preparation and virtues of the moſt celebrated wines of their

time, we can hardly help believing that the ancients poſſeſſed the art of thickening and drying certain kinds of wine in order to preſerve them for a long time. Ariſtotle tells us expreſsly that the wines of Arcadia became ſo dry in the leather bags in which they were kept, that it was neceſſary to ſcrape them off and dilute them with water before they could be fit for drinking: *Ita exſiccatur in utribus ut deraſum bibatur.* Pliny ſpeaks of wines kept for a hundred years which had become as thick as honey, and which could not be drunk till diluted with warm water and ſtrained through a cloth. This was called *ſaccatio vinorum.* According to martial, Cæcuban wine ought to be filtered in that manner:

Turbida ſollicito tranſmittere Cæcuba ſacco.

Galen ſpeaks of ſome wines of Aſia, which, when put into large bottles ſuſpended near the fire, acquired by evaporation the ſolidity of ſalt. This operation was called *fumarium.*

It was certainly wine of this nature that the ancients preſerved in the upper part of their houſes, and in a ſouthern expoſure: theſe places were diſtinguiſhed by the appellations of *horreum vinarium, apotheca vinaria.*

But all theſe facts can relate only to mild, thick, and little fermented wines, or to juices not altered and concentrated. They were extracts rather than liquors, and perhaps they were only reſinous ſubſtances ſimilar to that which we form at preſent by the inſpiſſation and concentration of the juice of the grape.

The ancients were acquainted alſo with light wines, which were drunk immediately: *quale in Italia quod Gauranum vocant et Albanum, et quæ in Sabinis et in Tuſcis naſcuntur.* They conſidered recent wines as hot in the firſt degree, and the oldeſt were conſidered as the hotteſt.

Each kind of wine had a known and determinate period before which it could not be employed for drinking. Dioſcorides fixes this period at the ſeventh year, as a mean term. According to Galen and Athenæus, Falernian wine was never drunk, in general, until it had attained the age of ten years, and never after the age of twenty. The Alban wines required the age of twenty years, the Surrentine twenty-five, &c. Macrobius relates that Cicero, being at ſupper with Damiſippus, was treated with Falernian wine of forty years, which Cicero praiſed by obſerving that it bore its age well: *benè, inquit, ætatem fert.* Pliny ſpeaks of wine ſerved up at the table of Caligula which was more than one hundred and ſixty years old. Horace celebrates wine of a hundred leaves, &c.

On WINE conſidered in regard to CLIMATE, SOIL, EXPOSURE, SEASONS, CULTURE, &c.

1ſt, CLIMATE.—All climates are not proper for the cultivation of the vine: if this plant ſeems to vegetate with vigour in the northern climates, it is certain that the fruit can never there acquire a ſufficient degree of maturity; and it is an invariable truth, that beyond the 50th degree of latitude the juice of the grape cannot experience that fermentation which converts it into an agreeable beverage.

The caſe with the vine in regard to climate is the ſame as with other vegetable productions. We find toward the north a vigorous vegetation, plants well nouriſhed, and ſucculent; while the ſouth exhibits productions charged with aroma, reſin, and volatile oil; here every thing is converted into *ſpirit*, there every thing is employed to produce *ſtrength*. Theſe characters, ſo ſtriking in vegetation, occur in the phenomena of animaliſation; where *ſpirit* and *ſenſibility* ſeem to be appendages of the ſouthern climates, while *ſtrength* ſeems to be the attribute of the inhabitant of the north.

Travellers in England have obſerved that ſome of the inſipid vege-

tables of Greenland acquire taſte and ſmell in the gardens near London. Beynier found that the melilot, which has a ſtrong penetrating ſmell in warm climates, retained none in Holland. Every body knows that the highly ſubtile poiſon of certain plants and animals is ſucceſſively blunted or extinguiſhed in the individuals reared in climates lying further toward the north.

Sugar itſelf ſeems not to expand in a complete manner but in warm countries. The ſugar-canes cultivated in our gardens furniſh ſcarcely any ſaccharine principle; and grapes are ſour, harſh, or inſipid, beyond the 50th degree of latitude.

The aroma, or perfume of the grapes, as well as the ſaccharine principle, are the production then of a bright and a conſtant ſun. The ſour or harſh juice produced in grapes during the firſt period of their formation cannot be properly matured in the north, and this primitive character of greenneſs ſtill exiſts when the firſt froſts come to freeze the organs of maturation.

Thus, in the north, the grapes rich in principles of putrefaction contain ſcarcely any element of ſpirituous fermentation, and the expreſſed juice of the fruit, having experienced the phenomena of fermentation, produces a ſour liquor, in which there exiſts only that proportion of alcohol neceſſary for interrupting the movements of putrid fermentation.

The vine, therefore, as well as the other productions of nature, has climates peculiar to itſelf: it is between the 40th and 50th degrees of latitude that this vegetable production can be cultivated with any degree of advantage. It is alſo between theſe points that the moſt celebrated vineyards are found, and the countries richeſt in vines; ſuch as Spain, Portugal, France, Italy, Auſtria, Styria, Carinthia, Hungary, Tranſylvania, and a part of Greece.

But of all countries none perhaps preſents ſo happy a ſituation for the vine as France; none exhibits ſo large an extent of vineyards, nor expoſures more varied; and no country has ſuch an aſtoniſhing variety of temperature. From the banks of the Rhine to the bottom of the Pyrenees the vine is almoſt every where cultivated, and in this vaſt extent the moſt agreeable and moſt ſpirituous wines of Europe are to be found.

But though climate ſtamps a general and indelible character on its productions, there are certain circumſtances which modify and limit its action; and it is only by carefully attending to what each of them produces that we can be able to diſcover the effect of climate alone. It is thus that we often find the different qualities of wine united under the ſame climate, becauſe the ſoil, expoſure, and cultivation, modify and maſk the immediate action of that grand agent.

On the other hand, there are ſome vine plants which do not leave us the choice of cultivating them indiſcriminately in any latitude at pleaſure. Soil, climate, expoſure, cultivation, all ought to be appropriated to their inflexible nature; and the leaſt violation of this natural character eſſentially alters the product. Thus, the vines of Greece tranſported to Italy no longer produced the ſame wine; and thoſe of Falernum, cultivated at the bottom of Veſuvius, have changed their nature. It is confirmed by daily experience that the plants of Burgundy tranſported to the ſouth no longer produce wines ſo agreeable and delicate.

It is therefore proved that the characters by which certain vines are diſtinguiſhed cannot be reproduced in different ſites; for this purpoſe the conſtant influence of the ſame cauſes is neceſſary, and, as it is impoſſible to unite them all, the conſequence muſt be changes and modifications.

We may therefore conclude that warm climates, by favouring the formation of the ſaccharine principle, muſt produce wines highly ſpirituous, as ſugar is neceſſary to their formation. But the fermentation muſt be

conducted in such a manner as to decompose all the sugar of the grapes, otherwise the result will be wines exceedingly luscious and sweet, as has been observed in some of the southern countries, and in all cases where the saccharine juice of the grapes is too much concentrated to experience a complete decomposition.

The cold climates can give birth only to weak and exceedingly aqueous wines, which have sometimes an agreeable flavour; the grapes, in which scarcely any saccharine principle exists, cannot contribute toward the production of alcohol, which forms the whole strength of wines. But, on the other hand, as the heat arising from the fermentation of these grapes is very moderate, the aromatic principle is preserved in its full force, and contributes to render these liquors exceedingly agreeable, though weak.

2. Soil.—The vine grows every where, and, if we could judge of the quality of it by the vigour of its vegetation, it is in fat moist soil, well dunged, that it ought to be cultivated. But we are taught by experience that the goodness of wine is never proportioned to the force of the vine. We may therefore say that nature, desirous to assign to each quality of soil a peculiar production, has reserved dry light soil for the vine, and has entrusted the cultivation of corn to fat and well nurtured lands:

Hic segetes, illic veniunt felicius uvæ.

It is in consequence of this admirable distribution that agriculture covers with its varied productions the surface of our globe; and nothing is necessary but to avoid deranging the natural order, and to apply to each place the proper cultivation to obtain almost every where abundant and varied crops:

Nec vero ferre omnes omnia possunt:
Nascuntur steriles saxosis montibus orni;
Littora myrthetis lætissima: denique apertos
Bacchus amat colles.

Strong argillaceous earth is not at all proper for the cultivation of the vine; for not only are the roots prevented from extending themselves in ramifications, as is the case in fat and compact soil; but the facility with which these strata are penetrated by water, and the obstinacy with which they retain it, maintain a permanent state of humidity, which rots the root, and gives to all the individuals of the vine symptoms of weakness, which soon end in their destruction.

There are some kinds of strong earth which do not possess those hurtful qualities that belong to the argillaceous soil above-mentioned. Here the vine grows and vegetates in freedom; but this strength of vegetation still essentially hurts the good quality of the grapes, which can with difficulty acquire maturity, and gives the wine neither spirit nor flavour. These kinds of soil, however, are sometimes set apart for the vine, because its abundance makes up for its quality, and because it is often more advantageous for the farmer to cultivate the vine than to sow corn. Besides, these weak but abundant wines furnish a beverage suited to labourers of every class, and are attended with advantage in regard to distillation, as the vines require little culture.

It is well known to all farmers that moist soil is not proper for the cultivation of the vine. If the soil, continually moistened, is of a fat nature, the plant languishes in it, rots, and dies: on the other hand, if the soil be open, light, and calcareous, the vegetation may be strong and vigorous, but the wine arising from it cannot fail to be aqueous, weak, and destitute of flavour.

Calcareous soil in general is proper for the vine: being arid, dry, and light, it affords a proper support to the plant; the water with which it becomes occasionally impregnated circulates, and freely penetrates through the whole stratum; the numerous ramifications of the roots imbibe it at every pore; and in all these points of view calcareous soil is very favourable to the vine. In general, wines produced in calcareous soil are spirituous,

and the cultivation is ſo much the eaſier, as the ſoil is light and not ſtrongly connected; beſides, it is to be obſerved that theſe dry ſoils appear excluſively deſtined for the vine: the want of water, mould, and manure, oppoſe the idea of every other cultivation.

But there are ſome kinds of ſoil ſtill more favourable to the vine, thoſe which are at the ſame time light and pebbly: the root eaſily forces itſelf through a ſoil, which, by a mixture of light earth and pebbles, is rendered exceedingly permeable. The ſtratum of *galets* which covers the ſurface of the earth defends it from the drying ardour of the ſun; and while the ſtem and the grapes receive the benign influence of that luminary, the root, properly moiſtened, furniſhes the juice neceſſary for the labour of vegetation. Soil of this kind is called in different countries, ſtony ſoil, ſandy ſoil, &c.

Volcanic earth alſo produces delicious wines. I have had occaſion to obſerve in different parts of the ſouth of France that the moſt vigorous vines and the moſt capital wines were produced among the remains of volcanoes. Theſe virgin earths, prepared for a long time in the boſom of the earth by ſubterranean fires, exhibit an intimate mixture of all the earthy principles; their ſemi-vitrified texture, decompoſed by the combined action of the air and water, furniſhes all the elements of good vegetation, and the fire with which the earths have been impregnated, ſeems to paſs in ſucceſſion into all the plants intruſted to them. The wines of Tokay and the beſt wines of Italy are the production of volcanic ſoil; the laſt biſhop of Agde dug up, and planted with vines the old volcano of the mountain, at the bottom of which that ancient town is ſituate, and theſe plantations form at preſent one of the richeſt vineyards in that canton.

There are points on the variegated ſurface of our globe where the granite no longer preſents that hardneſs and unalterability which in general form the character of that primitive rock: in theſe places it is pulverulent, and preſents to the eye nothingbut dry ſand of greater or leſs coarſeneſs: it is among theſe remains that the vine is cultivated in ſeveral parts of France; and, when a favourable expoſure concurs to aſſiſt the increaſe, the wine is of a ſuperior quality. The famous hermitage wine is produced amid ſimilar ruins. From theſe principles it may be readily judged, that a ſoil like that of France muſt be favourable to the formation of good wine; as it exhibits that lightneſs of ſoil which permits the roots to extend themſelves, and allows the water to filter through it, and the air to penetrate it: that flinty cruſt which moderates and checks the ardour of the ſun; that valuable mixture of earthy elements, the compoſition of which ſeems ſo advantageous to every kind of vegetation.

Thus, the farmer, more anxious to obtain wine of a good quality than an abundant vintage, will eſtabliſh his vineyard in light pebbly ſoil; and he will not make choice of a fat rich ſoil unleſs he intends to ſacrifice quality to quantity *.

* Though the principles here eſtabliſhed are proved almoſt by general obſervation, we muſt not, however, conclude that there are no exceptions. Creuzé-Latouche obſerves in a memoir read in the Agricultural Society of La Seine, that the valuable vines of Aï, Epernay, and Hautvillers ſur la Marne have the ſame expoſure, and grow in the ſame ſoil and land as thoſe in the neighbourhood. The ſame author obſerves, that attempts have been made to convert corn lands into vineyards; but it is probable that the experiments have not been attended with ſucceſs, and that, conſequently, there are cauſes of difference which cannot be diſcovered by mere inſpection.

This author adds, that the primitive earth in the vineyards of the firſt rank in Champagne, are covered with an artificial ſtratum formed by a mixture of turf and rotten dung, common earth taken from the ſides of the hills, and ſometimes of black and rotten ſand. Theſe kinds of earth are carried to the vineyards all the year through, except in vintage time.

RETROSPECT OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Continued from Page 12.

Manners—Political Parties—Union.

IN our article under this head in the Univerſal Magazine for January, we took a brief review of the leading public, or national events of the laſt century; and concluded with a promiſe to return to the ſubject of manners—internal politics—and the laſt conſiderable change, the union between Great Britain and Ireland.

With reſpect to *manners*, it is a ſubject of more difficult diſcuſſion than many will be diſpoſed to allow. It leads, and leads naturally, to the queſtion, 'are we better or worſe than our anceſtors?' and few queſtions have been more often aſked, or more ſeldom anſwered in a ſatisfactory manner. If mere progreſs in life were improvement, if merely to paſs through the path of experience was to learn wiſdom, it would follow that each ſucceeding age ſhould be wiſer and better than that which preceded it. But common obſervation aſſures us, that this is very far from being the caſe, and the reaſon is that individuals are always found, who neglect experience and the cultivation of wiſdom, ſo much that advanced age gives often greater proofs of vice and folly than inexperienced youth. It is true that at the cloſe of each revolving century, we can point out immenſe improvements, and greater advances toward wiſdom and perfection, and greater correctneſs of moral ſentiments, than the preceding century could ſhow. But ſtill this appears to be little more than the accumulation of a public ſtock, from which individuals are unwilling to draw, and all the difference with reſpect to morals is that in our *enlightened* age, men do not err from ignorance of vice, but from contempt of virtue; not from being ignorant of the conſequences of error, but from a vague calculation that ſuch conſequences may be eſcaped.

Yet this remark will not apply with more force to the eighteenth, than to the ſeventeenth or ſixteenth century, in which, judging from the writings of thoſe periods, men were furniſhed with as proper inſtructions in their duties, and as juſt ideas of their real intereſts, as the moſt diſtinguiſhed authors of the preſent day have exhibited. It will therefore, we ſuſpect, appear, that inſtead of thinking ourſelves better or worſe than our anceſtors, we ſhould enquire whether we have made more or leſs uſe of our means and opportunities. And this appears to be a queſtion of very difficult ſolution, becauſe we know a great deal of our own times, but very little of thoſe who have long preceded them. If, indeed, our anceſtors had recorded the little minutiæ of life, the decorums, and the indecorums, the follies whether greater or leſſer of the faſhionable and the vulgar world, as is now regularly done in our newſpapers, a reference to ſuch publications would throw great light on the manners of the period in queſtion. Certain it is that however trifling and childiſh our newſpapers are become in their contents, they will exhibit the features of the preſent to future generations in a more diſtinct light than a well-wiſher of his own times would deſire.

Deſtitute of actual or a continued ſeries of proofs, therefore, we muſt glean ſomewhat from one publication and ſomewhat from another, and luckily for us, the eſtabliſhment of the celebrated periodical papers (The Tatler, Spectator and Guardian) in the beginning of the laſt century, affords very conſiderable helps in inveſtigating the morals and manners of the times. With reſpect to *morals*, as far as we can gather from ſuch information, we do not perceive any

very great difference between them, and what prevail in our own times. The groſſer vices appear to have been committed with as little reſerve, or reſpect for public decency as now; ſeduction, adultery, and gaming, were then, as now, the ſplendid vices of rank and opulence; and the clergy of the day (and this is a material circumſtance) repreſented the ſins of the nation in colours as alarming, as any preacher of our time can expreſs. The nation then had not quite recovered from the profligacy of Charles II's reign, for a moſt profligate reign it undoubtedly was. Yet a great revolution marked the very commencement of that century, namely, that reform of the ſtage, of which we gave a ſhort account in our laſt Retroſpect. This was an important point. It muſt have been often ſeen ſince, and ſeen with pleaſure, that our audiences reject with contempt every approach to indelicacy on the ſtage, while the fact was, that before the reform alluded to, a woman of character dared not to frequent the theatre unmaſked, and indeed it is aſtoniſhing that any woman of ſuch a deſcription could viſit it at all.

This, we repeat, was a great point gained. But how was it gained? The ſame audiences which ſat contented under the groſſeſt inſults to decency, now roſe to drive them from the ſtage. How was this effected, or is it not incredible, becauſe inconſiſtent? The fact was, that the public had not recovered from the general turn to profligacy of language introduced, or at leaſt greatly encouraged, in Charles II's time. Their ears were familiarized with impiety and indecency; yet their ſenſes were not perverted; they took the alarm when the alarm was given; they were aſtoniſhed that men who would not be thought profligate had yet been imperceptibly betrayed into an alliance with public licentiouſneſs, and they reſcued their characters and the age they lived in from farther danger, and ſhameful imputation.

In this one reſpect, therefore, the laſt century began with happy auſpices. But the queſtion recurs, did theſe promiſing ſymptoms proceed, and was our deteſtation of public licentiouſneſs as warm at the concluſion as at the beginning of the century? On this queſtion, there may be various opinions. It appears to us that without deciding too poſitively either one way or other, that is, without going to the extremes of a direct and blunt affirmative, or negative, we may take a middle courſe, and while we allow that there are a very conſiderable party, who purſue the more groſs vices of ſeduction, adultery, gaming, &c. with a moſt perfect contempt for the laws of the land, the happineſs of ſociety, and the dignity of character, yet on the other hand we have a greater party, who are not remiſs in expoſing ſuch conduct to the abhorrence of the public. Nothing of the kind happens without exciting public cenſure. No perſon, be his rank or talents ever ſo eminent, can deliberately offer a defence of his vices, or claim more protection from the conſequences of them than mere riches afford, which is but trifling. Nor is the encouragement of late years given to works profeſſedly written to amend the morals of the nation, a circumſtance to be overlooked, in this eſtimate. Upon the whole, therefore, we ſhould be inclined to think that in point of general morals, the laſt century exhibits no very remarkable ſymptoms of degeneracy.

Yet while we concede thus far—and wiſh to give the picture a few touches of pleaſing *bright*, we do it with a trembling hand; and ſo many circumſtances are to be taken into the account, that we ſhould neither be ſurprized nor offended, if another writer ſhould from the ſame *data* deduce oppoſite concluſions. In particular, we recollect that there is a *falling off* to be obſerved, too important not to demand our moſt ſerious attention, and it is this:

The cloſe of the eighteenth century was diſtinguiſhed by the riſe of a ſet

of men, whoſe object was to pervert the religious principles of the lower claſs of people into atheiſm, under the ſhallow pretext of enlightening their minds. Innumerable ſmall tracts of the moſt pernicious tendency were diſſeminated among them, either *gratis* or at a very low price, and the evil had arrived at a conſiderable height, when government thought proper to interpoſe. Nothing of this kind, we believe, was ever before attempted. It is true that the early part of the century was diſtinguiſhed by the writings of ſome eminent infidels, but they were not circulated nor intended to be circulated among the ignorant. They were addreſſed to the learned, and by the learned they were refuted, and conſigned to oblivion. The ſame notions, haſhed up in popular forms, compoſed the ſmall tracts to which we allude; and there cannot be a doubt that their influence was conſiderable. Yet here, too, men of the firſt talents ſtept forward to expoſe the futility of reviving long anſwerered ſophiſms; and the evil, we truſt, has ſubſided, in a great meaſure.

But it is time now to revert to manners, as ſo called, in contradiſtinction to *morals*, although perhaps the connexion is too intimate to allow of ſeparation. The principal branch of manners to which all writers on the ſubject direct their attention, is *luxury*, and the queſtion will then be, how far that has or has not made a progreſs in the courſe of the eighteenth century? Here we can ſpeak a little more decidedly than on the former topic, becauſe we can collect ſufficient proofs from living evidences, and upon ſuch authority, we have no heſitation in affirming that luxury had made a very great progreſs within, particularly, the laſt forty years. To affect to deny this, is to ſuſpend the operation of our ſenſes, and neither to hear nor ſee what is paſſing around us. It has become a queſtion, indeed, whether luxury is not beneficial to a ſtate, but with that queſtion we ſhall not otherwiſe interfere than by aſking, whether debt and diſtreſs are beneficial to an individual?

The change in the mode of living, which has taken place within the time above ſpecified, is aſtoniſhing, and it affects almoſt equally all ranks, although as an example it is certainly copied from the upper. There evidently was a time, when an actual diſtinction prevailed between noblemen or gentleman, and citizens or tradeſmen. It was viſible in all their actions. Unfortunately it became a topic of ridicule, even on the public ſtage, where a citizen was frequently introduced in no better light than as a rich and parſimonious fool, whoſe money might be taken from him by fraud, and whoſe wife and daughters were little better than common property to any 'gay and gallant Lothario.' As education advanced among the trading part of the world, the citizens roufed themſelves; they became more ſenſible of the conſequence which riches give, when joined with the *ſpirit* of genteel life, and they began to approximate more to the manners of the court end of the town; they mixed in the ſame amuſements, and it was not difficult to copy, however awkwardly at firſt, the manners of perſons whom they frequently ſaw without diſguiſe. Another circumſtance contributed to this mixture of ranks: commerce not only was greatly enlarged, but began to go into new channels: manufactories and ſchemes new to the country, were eſtabliſhed upon the moſt extenſive ſcale, and were in moſt caſes ſucceſsful. The ſhopkeeper became the warehouſeman, and the warehouſeman, the merchant: then another and a new ſpecies of men aroſe, under the name of agents, factors, brokers, and jobbers, who accumulated vaſt fortunes merely by doing the buſineſs, which formerly merchants, manufacturers, and growers did for themſelves, and they were enabled to accumulate theſe fortunes with no riſk, and with no capital to begin with, except induſtry and integrity. It would be needleſs to enlarge upon this claſs, as

the public have lately heard enough of ſome part, at leaſt, of them, in the diſcuſſions on the policy of our corn laws. Still we ſee, and a moſt ſurpriſing phenomenon it is, that in the important articles of corn, hops, and perhaps others, immenſe fortunes may be acquired by men who are neither the growers, nor the conſumers of theſe articles, and have not in their own poſſeſſion an acre of ground in the kingdom.

With theſe may be connected the whole race of ſpeculators, who perſiſt amid many failures, to open new channels of wealth, and whatever evil conſequences may ariſe to individuals, it muſt be allowed that the nation at large, particularly in its relationſhip to other nations, has profited by their enterpriſing ſpirit. It is, however, from theſe new and rapid channels of wealth, that luxury has flowed ſo faſt upon the public. Many of theſe men vie in expences with perſons of the higheſt rank, and it cannot be ſuppoſed that their inferiors in ſucceſs can behold ſuch ſplendour and opulence without wiſhing to partake of it, nor the reſpect that is paid them, without wiſhing to exhibit appearances that may in ſome degree claim the ſame.

To theſe may be added another claſs of middle men, between the trading and the titled part of the community, thoſe whom Dr. Johnſon has ſo aptly characterized as 'paymaſters and agents, contractors and commiſſaries, whoſe equipages ſhine like meteors, and whoſe palaces riſe like exhalations.' 'Theſe are the men,' he adds, 'who, without virtue, labour or hazard, are growing rich as their country is impoveriſhed; they rejoice when obſtinacy or ambition adds another year to ſlaughter and devaſtation; and laugh from their deſks at bravery and ſcience, while they are adding figure to figure, and cypher to cypher, hoping for a new contract from a new armament, and computing the profits of a ſiege or tempeſt.'

This deſcription, which was drawn up originally with the laudable view of preventing the nation from going to war, about ſo inſignificant an object as Faulkland's iſlands, has been, we are afraid, too often quoted ſince with juſtice, although undoubtedly exceptions may be made, and regulations have of late been adopted to leſſen the injury, the public may receive in its contracts.

To theſe we muſt ſtill add another claſs of opulent men without labour, who are the creation of the funding ſyſtem; and that is of thoſe men who live by what we may term the manufactory of money, and who by loans to government, can often in a few hours realize a princely fortune, or at leaſt, raiſe a vaſt ſum, which had not before, if we may ſo ſpeak, an exiſtence. If to theſe we add the numerous body connected with the Stock-exchange, we ſhall be able to contemplate the immenſe conſequence of national faith and credit in the raiſing of fortunes, independent of the viſible and tangible property of goods and manufactures.

Money, it is frequently obſerved, is ſpent more or leſs eaſily, as it is acquired. Thoſe who ſuddenly and eaſily arrive at wealth are leſs aware of its value, than thoſe who toil for a competence. Hence a great diſplay of luxury, wherever we turn our eyes, and that luxury ſpreading itſelf by example among the claſſes who can leſs afford it, and who are too frequently the unpitied victims of their folly. Hence it is that ſo many young tradeſmen, forgetting the regular progreſs of trade, and ſeeming to conſider it as a chance affair, in which they who began with little may grow rich, becauſe their neighbours who began with little have grown rich; hence it is, we ſay, that they launch out into expences, which would be more becoming the retired citizen than him, who has to encounter the viciſſitudes of trade. It is a fact that can be confirmed by the evidence of many now living, that the ſame claſs of men who forty years ago, if they invited

a friend to partake of a dinner, would ſend to a tavern for a bottle of wine, will now ſhow their cellars ſtored with pipes of different vintages, and a table covered with all the luxuries of the ſeaſon. It is leſs neceſſary to take notice of what is ſo obvious, as the luxury that prevails in *dreſs*. We are not quite certain that becauſe dreſs undergoes many changes, it is upon the whole a more extravagant article, than it was in the beginning of the century. On the contrary, we believe it is leſs ſo, for gold and ſilver are now much diſuſed in dreſs, which in our memory were the diſtinctions of wealth and finery. Our court dreſſes now are of little intrinſic value, compared to what they were when their majeſties came to the throne. What is now paid, is paid principally for faſhion; the materials, if we except lace and diamonds, which were the property of the wearer before in moſt inſtances, are of trifling value. Indeed the prevalence of faſhion over ſubſtance is viſible in other articles as well as dreſs, particularly in ſilver and gold plate, where the intrinſic value ſeldom approaches to the price charged for faſhion, and the faſhion is that every article of this kind ſhould be made as ſlight as poſſible. The rich, old maſſy plate of our anceſtors is to be ſeen only, if ſeen at all, in the halls of ſome of the corporations.

The facility with which we go from one extreme to another, affords another inſtance of growing luxury, the conſequences of which have been already ſeverely felt in the ruin of many of the fair part of the creation. Formerly their education was either entirely neglected, or confined to branches of domeſtic economy. From this extreme we daſhed at once into all the faſhionable minutiæ of a *finiſhed* education, as it is improperly called, in the moſt genteel ſchools. Here, too frequently, aſſociations are formed from which all the ſcholars, however different in rank of life, imbibe the ſame ideas of expence and idleneſs. It is not our province to enquire what ought or ought not to be the limits of education. From experience, however, we may affirm that all that is neceſſary may be acquired at home, under the guardianſhip of a ſenſible parent. However, of the abſurdity of ſending the daughters of tradeſmen to aſſociate with thoſe of people of rank, there can be no doubt; and the miſchief of ſuch a practice, we fear, has been too frequently recorded in the ſhort and miſerable annals of female ruin, and untimely death.

On the ſubject of general manners, we have dwelt at conſiderable length, yet upon a review, many circumſtances appear to be omitted, which are important; but as the article has already extended far enough, we ſhall reſume theſe, and the other topics announced at the head of this article, in our next Magazine. The ſketch, we profeſs to take, muſt neceſſarily be brief; volumes would be requiſite to enter into cloſe details; yet we truſt we ſhall be able to admit enough to call the attention of our readers, and that their conſideration of the ſubject will ſupply what is wanting.

FIRST PRINCIPLES OF TRADE.

THE moſt ſimple of all trade is that which is carried on by bartering the neceſſary articles of ſubſiſtence. If we ſuppoſe the earth free to the firſt poſſeſſor, this perſon who cultivates it will firſt draw from it his food; and the ſurplus will be object of barter; he will give this in exchange to any one who will ſupply his other wants. This naturally ſuppoſes both a ſurplus quantity of food produced by labour, and alſo free hands; for he who makes a trade of agriculture, cannot ſupply himſelf with all other neceſſaries, as well as food; and he who makes a trade of ſupplying the farmers with ſuch neceſſaries, in exchange for his ſurplus of food, cannot be employ-

ed in producing that food. The more the neceſſities of man increaſe, the more free hands are required to ſupply them; and the more free hands are required, the more ſurplus food muſt be produced by additional labour, to ſupply their demand.

This is the leaſt complex kind of trade, and may be carried on to a greater or leſs extent, in different countries, according to the different degrees of the wants to be ſupplied. In a country where there is no money, nor any thing equivalent to it, the wants of mankind will be confined to few objects, viz. the removing the inconveniencies of hunger, thirſt, cold, heat, danger, and the like. A free man, who, by his induſtry, can procure all the comforts of a ſimple life, will enjoy his reſt, and work no more; and, in general, all increaſe of work will ceaſe, ſo ſoon as the demand for the purpoſes mentioned comes to be ſatisfied. There is a plain reaſon for this. When the free hands have procured, by their labour, wherewithal to ſupply their wants, their ambition is ſatisfied: ſo ſoon as the huſbandmen have produced the neceſſary ſurplus for relieving theirs, they work no more. Here then is a natural ſtop put to induſtry, conſequently to bartering.

The next thing to be examined is, how bartering grows into trade, properly ſo called, and underſtood, according to the definition given of it above; how trade comes to be extended among men; how manufactures, more ornamental than uſeful, come to be eſtabliſhed; and how men come to ſubmit to labour, in order to acquire what is not abſolutely neceſſary for them.

This, in a free ſociety, is chiefly owing to the introduction of money, and a taſte of ſuperfluities in thoſe who poſſeſs it.—In ancient times, money was not wanting; but the taſte for ſuperfluities not being in proportion to it, the ſpecie was locked up. This was the caſe in Europe four hundred years ago. A new taſte for ſuperfluity has drawn, perhaps, more money into circulation, from our own treaſures, than from the mines of the new world. The poor opinion we entertain of the riches of our foreſathers, is founded upon the modern way of eſtimating wealth, by the quantity of coin in circulation, from which we conclude, that the greateſt part of the ſpecie now in our hands muſt have come from America.

It is more, therefore, through the taſte of ſuperfluity, than in conſequence of the quantity of coin, that trade comes to be eſtabliſhed; and it is only in conſequence of trade that we ſee induſtry carry things in our days to ſo high a pitch of refinement and delicacy. Let us illuſtrate this, by comparing together the different operations of barter, ſale, and commerce.

When reciprocal wants are ſupplied by barter, there is not the ſmalleſt occaſion for money: this is the moſt ſimple of all combinations. When wants are multiplied, bartering becomes more difficult; upon this money is introduced. This is the common price of all things; it is a proper equivalent in the hands of thoſe who want, perfectly calculated to ſupply the occaſions of thoſe who, by induſtry, can relieve them. This operation of buying and ſelling is a little more complex than the former; but ſtill we have here no idea of trade, becauſe we have not introduced the merchant, by whoſe induſtry it is carried on.

Let this third perſon be brought into play, and the whole operation becomes clear. What before we called *wants*, is here repreſented by the conſumer; what we call *induſtry*, by the manufacturer; and what we called *money*, by the merchant. The merchant here repreſents the money, by ſubſtituting credit in its place; and as the money was invented to facilitate barter, ſo the merchant, with his credit, is a new refinement upon the uſe of money. This renders it ſtill more effectual in performing the operations of buying and ſelling. This operation

is *trade*; it relieves both parties of the trouble of tranſportation, and adjuſting wants to wants, or wants to money; the merchant repreſents by turns both the conſumer, the manufacturer, and the money. To the conſumer he appears as the whole body of manufacturers; to the manufacturers as the whole body of conſumers; and to the one and the other claſs his credit ſupplies the uſe of money. This is ſufficient at preſent for an illuſtration. We now return to the ſimple operations of money in the hands of the two contracting parties, the buyer and the ſeller, in order to ſhow how men come to ſubmit to labour in order to acquire ſuperfluities.

So ſoon as money is introduced into a country, it becomes a univerſal object of want to all the inhabitants. The conſequence is, that the free hands of the ſtate, who before ſtopt working, becauſe all their wants were provided for, having this new object of ambition before their eyes, endeavour, by refinements upon their labour, to remove the ſmaller inconveniences, which reſult from a ſimplicity of manners. People, who formerly knew but one ſort of clothing for all ſeaſons, willingly part with a little money to procure for themſelves different ſorts of apparel properly adapted to ſummer and winter, which the ingenuity of manufacturers, and their deſire of getting money, may have ſuggeſted to their invention.

Indeed theſe refinements ſeem more generally owing to the induſtry and invention of the manufacturers (who by their ingenuity daily contrive means of ſoftening or relieving inconveniences which mankind ſeldom perceive to be ſuch, till the way of removing them is contrived) than to the taſte of luxury in the rich, who, to indulge their eaſe, engage the poor to become induſtrious. Let any man make an experiment of this nature upon himſelf, by entering into the firſt ſhop. He will no where ſo quickly diſcover his wants as there. Every thing he ſees appears either neceſſary, or at leaſt highly convenient; and he begins to wonder how he could have been ſo long without that which the ingenuity of the workman alone had invented, in order that from the novelty it might excite his deſire; for perhaps when it is bought, he will never once think of it more, nor ever apply it to the uſe for which it at firſt appeared ſo neceſſary.

Here then is a reaſon why mankind labour though not in want. They become deſirous of poſſeſſing the very inſtruments of luxury, which their avarice or ambition prompted them to invent for the uſe of others.—What has hitherto been ſaid repreſents trade in its infancy, or rather the materials with which that great fabric is built.

We have formed an idea of the wants of mankind multiplied even to luxury, and abundantly ſupplied by the employment of all the free hands ſet apart for that purpoſe. But if we ſuppoſe the workman himſelf diſpoſing of his work, and purchaſing with it food from the farmer, clothes from the clothier; and, in general, ſeeking for the ſupply of every want from the hands of the perſon, directly employed for the purpoſe of relieving it; this will not convey an idea of trade according to our definition. Trade and commerce are an abbreviation of this long proceſs: a ſcheme invented and ſet on foot by merchants, from a principle of gain, ſupported and extended among men, from a principle of general utility to every individual rich and poor; to every ſociety, great or ſmall.

Inſtead of a manufacturer exchanging what he manufactures with fifty different perſons, for whoſe labour he has occaſion, he ſells all to the merchant for money or for credit; and as occaſion offers, he purchaſes all his wants, either directly from thoſe who ſupply them, or from other merchants who deal with manufacturers in the ſame way his merchant dealt with him. Another advantage of trade is, that induſtrious people in one part of the country may ſupply cuſtomers in ano-

ther, though diſtant. They may eſtabliſh themſelves in the moſt commodious places for their reſpective buſineſs, and help one another reciprocally, without making the diſtant parts of the country ſuffer for want of their labour. They are likewiſe expoſed to no avocation from their work, by ſeeking for cuſtomers. Trade produces many excellent advantages, it marks out to the manufacturers when their branch is under or overſtocked with hands. If it is underſtocked, they will find more demand than they can anſwer; if it is overſtocked, the ſale will be ſlow. Intelligent men in every profeſſion, will eaſily diſcover when theſe appearances are accidental, and when they proceed from the real principles of trade.

Poſts, and correſpondence by letters, are a conſequence of trade; by the means of which merchants are regularly informed of every augmentation or diminution of induſtry in every branch, in every part of the country. From this knowledge they regulate the prices they offer; and as they are many, they ſerve as a check upon one another, from the principles of competition. From the current prices, the manufacturers are as well informed, as if they kept the correſpondence themſelves: the ſtateſman feels perfectly where hands are wanting, and young people deſtined to induſtry, obey, in a manner, the call of the public, and fall naturally in to ſupply the demand.

Two great aſſiſtances to merchants, eſpecially in the infancy of trade, are public markets for collecting the work of ſmall dealers, and large undertakings in the manufacturing way by private hands. By theſe means the merchants come at the knowledge of the quantity of work in the market, as on the other hand the manufacturers learn, by the ſale of the goods, the extent of the demand for them. Theſe two things being juſtly known, the price of goods is eaſily fixed.

Public ſales ſerve to correct the ſmall inconveniences which proceed from the operations of trade. A ſet of manufacturers got all together into one town, and entirely taken up with their induſtry, are thereby as well informed of the rate of the market, as if every one of them carried thither his work; and upon the arrival of the merchant, who readily takes it off their hands, he has not the leaſt advantage over them from his knowledge of the ſtate of demand. This man both buys and ſells in what is called *wholeſale*, and from him retailers purchaſe, who diſtribute the goods to every conſumer throughout the country. Theſe laſt buy from wholeſale merchants in every branch, that proportion of every kind of merchandize, which is ſuitable to the demand of their borough, city, or province.

Thus all inconveniences are prevented, at ſome additional coſt to the conſumer, who muſt naturally reimburſe the whole expence. The diſtance of the manufacturer, the obſcurity of his dwelling, the caprice in ſelling his work are quite removed; the retailer has all in his ſhop, and the public buys at a current price.

In the price of goods, two things muſt be conſidered as really exiſting, and quite different from one another; to wit, the real value of the commodity, and the profit upon alienation.

The firſt thing to be known of any manufacture, when it comes to be ſold, is how much of it a perſon can perform in a day, a week, a month, according to the nature of the work, which may require more or leſs time to bring it to perfection. In making ſuch eſtimates, regard is to be had only to what, upon an average, a workman of the country in general may perform, without ſuppoſing him the beſt or the worſt in his profeſſion, or having any peculiar advantage or diſadvantage as to the place where he works. Hence the reaſon why ſome people thrive by their induſtry and others not; why ſome manufactures flouriſh in one place and not in another.

The ſecond thing to be known is,

the value of the workman's ſubſiſtence, and neceſſary expence, both for ſupplying his perſonal wants and providing the inſtruments belonging to his profeſſion, which muſt be taken upon an average as above; except when the nature of the work requires the preſence of the workman in the place of conſumption; for although ſome trades, and almoſt every manufacture, may be carried on in places at a diſtance, and therefore may fall under one general regulation as to prices; yet others there are, which, by their nature, require the preſence of the workman in the place of conſumption; and in that caſe the prices muſt be regulated by circumſtances relative to every particular place.

The third and laſt thing to be known, is the value of the materials, that is, the firſt matter employed by the workman; and if the object of his induſtry be the manufacture of another, the ſame proceſs of inquiry muſt be gone through with regard to the firſt as with regard to the ſecond; and thus the moſt complex manufactures may be at laſt reduced to the greateſt ſimplicity.

Theſe three articles being known, the price of manufacture is determined. It cannot be lower than the amount of all the three, that is, than the real value; whatever it is higher, is the manufacturer's profit. This will ever be in proportion to demand, and therefore will fluctuate according to circumſtances. Hence appears the neceſſity of a great demand, in order to promote flouriſhing manufactures. By the extenſive dealings of merchants, and their conſtant application to the ſtudy of the balance of work and demand, all the above circumſtances are known to them, and are made known to the induſtrious, who regulate their living and expence according to their certain profit.

Employ a workman in a country, where there is little trade or induſtry, he proportions his price always to the urgency of your want, or your capacity to pay; but ſeldom to his own labour. Employ another in a country of trade, he will not impoſe upon you, unleſs perhaps you be a ſtranger, which ſuppoſes your being ignorant of the value; but employ the ſame workman in a work not uſual in the country, conſequently not demanded, conſequently not regulated as to the value, he will proportion his price as in the firſt ſuppoſition.

We may conclude, therefore, from this brief account of the principles and origin of trade, that in a country where trade has been eſtabliſhed, manufactures muſt flouriſh, from the ready ſale, the regulated price of work, and the certain profit reſulting from induſtry.

ANECDOTES *of the Family of the* GRENVILLES, *in* Mauritius *or the* Iſle *of* France.

[From Baron Grant's Hiſtory of that Iſland, principally in Letters.]

THE following curious hiſtory is in

LETTER VI.

In this letter I ſhall change my former ſubject, and paſs from the hiſtory of agriculture and the employments of a country life, to conſider the occupations of the town. My uncle has a houſe here, which we ſometimes viſit, particularly to enjoy the ſociety of M. de Grenville and his intereſting family. He has long been my uncle's intimate friend, and is become mine. It is from him and M. de la Bourdonnais, that I receive every information neceſſary for me to poſſeſs in this country.

M. de Grenville, is of an ancient, noble, and illuſtrious family of Normandy, where there are ſeveral burghs and eſtates which bear his name; and a branch which paſſed into England, with William the Conqueror, in 1066,

where it now poſſeſſes very extenſive poſſeſſions and high dignities.

This gentleman is an old officer, who has ſerved with honour both in France and India; and may, with great truth, be repreſented as ſuperior to the generality of mankind, from his underſtanding, his knowledge, and the qualities of his character. He is diſtinguiſhed here by the title of the philoſopher, and he deſerves it: for in the moſt elevating ſenſe of the expreſſion, he is a lover of wiſdom. In the early part of his life, the vivacity of his temper, heightened by the military ſpirit of that period, engaged him in frequent affairs of honour; and the laſt having taken place with a nobleman in the ſervice of the court, in the garden of Verſailles, and under the very windows of the king's apartment, it threatened the moſt ſerious conſequences. But M. de Moupou, then high in office, to whom he was related, perſuaded him to quit the kingdom, and procured him a commiſſion in India, where he ſerved with diſtinction.

If it were conſiſtent with the objects of this work, it would be a delightful circumſtance to dwell on the virtues and extraordinary qualities of this family. I muſt, however, confine myſelf to one of them, M. Grenville de Forval, the ſecond ſon of M. de Grenville. Some events relative to him are ſo connected with the manners of theſe iſlands (Mauritius, Bourbon, &c.) and ſo remarkable in themſelves, that they will at the ſame time heighten the intereſt, as well as add to the information of this work.

In theſe iſlands there is not a ſingle example of a deformed or crooked ſhape, which muſt ariſe from the natural and unreſtrained mode of education which prevails there. To theſe advantages, Forval united a martial air, blended with a ſlight appearance of ſeverity, and an approved courage, to the moſt noble and generous ſentiments that are found in the human breaſt.

The want of ſlaves in our colonies, renders expeditions neceſſary in order to procure them. Veſſels, therefore, are equipped for the coaſts of Africa and Madagaſcar, and a certain body of troops are ſent with them, to favour or ſupport the objects of theſe voyages.

Forval was ordered to command a detachment on a ſervice of this nature, on the coaſt of Madagaſcar; and being arrived on the eaſtern ſide of it, he diſembarked his people, and encamped them on the ſmall iſland of St. Mary, called by the natives, Ibrahim, which is ſeparated only from the principal iſland by a very narrow ſtrait. Here the communications took place between the perſons engaged in this expedition, and one of the petty princes of Madagaſcar, relative to the objects of the voyage.

Forval, however, was ſo entirely convinced of the good diſpoſition of the people with whom he treated, that he yielded to the friendly ſolicitations of the king, to remain among them, and accordingly ordered ſome tents, and a ſmall number of ſoldiers, to remove from the little iſland, to the oppoſite coaſt. The king, who was called Adrian Baba, loaded him with careſſes; and having ſhown him his herd of cattle, demanded, in the pride of his heart, if the king of France was ſo great as him.

Forval, therefore, conſidered himſelf as in a ſtate of perfect ſecurity; and having entered into his tent, in order to paſs the night, he received an unexpected viſit from a moſt beautiful woman, a native of the iſland, who, after a ſhort compliment of apology for her intruſion, expreſſed her concern that ſo fine a white man as himſelf ſhould be maſſacred.

Forval, who was aſtoniſhed at the viſit, could not help taking notice of the danger, which ſeemed to have produced it. The ſooty lady, who appeared to intereſt herſelf ſo much in his welfare, was the daughter of a king, and known by the title of princeſs Betſy. On being queſtioned as to the cauſe of this viſit, ſhe aſked

him, in her turn, if he would wiſh to ſacrifice her life to ſave his own. 'By no means,' exclaimed Forval: 'Then,' replied ſhe, 'I will inform you of a plot againſt your life, if you will promiſe to take me with you, and make me your wife. I will ſacrifice for you the throne of my father, which is my inheritance; I will abandon my country, my friends, my cuſtoms, and that liberty which is ſo dear to me. My relations, who will conſider me as diſhonoured, will deteſt me; and if you leave me to their vengeance, I ſhall be reduced to ſlavery, which, to me, would be a thouſand times worſe than death. Promiſe to grant what I have demanded; ſwear that your ſoldiers ſhall do no injury to my relations, and I will reveal what it is of the utmoſt importance for you to know!' Forval immediately engaged to grant her requeſt, if the intelligence ſhe announced, proved to be of the importance ſhe had attached to it.

'Well then,' ſaid ſhe, 'at break of day my father will come here, under the pretext of a friendly viſit, and if he breaks a ſtick, which he will hold in his hand, that will be the ſignal of thy death: his guard will then enter with their hatchets, and will kill thee, and all thy people will be maſſacred with thee.'

Forval immediately conducted her to a place of ſafety. Nevertheleſs he was determined to wait till the morning, and aſcertain the truth of her information. The princeſs had alſo added, that the ſignal the king would give for his attendants to retire, would be to throw his hat toward them.

He accordingly ordered his ſoldiers to remain under arms during the night, and to keep within their tents. As for himſelf, he got his arms in readineſs, placed a couple of piſtols under the covering of his table, and doſed by the ſide of it, with his hand on the piſtols.

At length the king arrived, and ſoon after, having broke his ſtick, the guard was advancing to the front of his tent; but the king, terrified at the piſtol which Forval held at his throat, caſt his hat toward his attendants, who immediately departed. The ſmall party of ſoldiers, which Forval had with him, were now drawn up in order of battle. All the negroes had diſappeared; the king alone remained as a priſoner; nor was he enlarged, till the princeſs was embarked with all the equipage, and Forval felt himſelf happy in departing from this perfidious coaſt. Nor was he ungrateful; he ſolemnly eſpouſed the princeſs Betſy, in ſpite of all the remonſtrances of his friends, and he lives happily with her. Her colour was certainly diſpleaſing to the white people, and her education did not qualify her to be a companion to ſuch a man as her huſband; but her figure was fine, her air noble, and all her actions partook of the dignity of one who was born to command.

She was a real amazon, and the dreſs ſhe choſe was that which has ſince received a ſimilar name. She never walked out but ſhe was followed by a ſlave, and armed with a ſmall fowling-piece, which ſhe knew how to employ with great dexterity, and would defend herſelf with equal courage if he were attacked. She was nimble as a deer, though ſtately in her demeanour; but with her huſband as gentle and ſubmiſſive as the moſt affectionate of his ſlaves. She behaved to her inferiors with equal dignity and kindneſs; and ſhe never went to the moſt diſtant part of the iſland, to pay viſits to her family, but on foot; ſhe nevertheleſs adopted the elegancies of behaviour with great facility, and her ſociety is very pleaſant, and full of vivacity.

Some years after this marriage, the princeſs Betſy, for ſhe was ſeldom called madam de Forval, gave her huſband a new proof of her affection. Her father at length died, the kingdom deſcended to her, and her people, who were ardently attached to the blood of their kings, anxiouſly wiſhed to ſee her on the throne of her anceſtors. As ſoon as ſhe was informed

of this event, ſhe requeſted permiſſion of her huſband to viſit her country. Though ſuch an unexpected requeſt aſtoniſhed Forval, he did not heſitate to comply with it; and as ſhe did not unfold the reaſon of ſuch a deſire on her part, he felt his pride mortified at her conduct, though he kept his chagrin to his own boſom, of which it was a painful inmate. The firſt ſentiments of Forval, reſpecting his princeſs, had been inſtigated by honour and gratitude: but her demeanour toward him, her conduct toward others, and her perſonal charms, in which her colour was forgotten, had awakened in his heart the moſt faithful and tender affection.

The queen Betſy, however, departed for her kingdom as ſoon as ſhe had received the permiſſion of her own ſovereign; while Forval was totally unable to reconcile the ſtep ſhe had taken to her former ſentiments and paſt conduct. He accordingly waited with the utmoſt impatience for the return of the veſſel which had taken her away, when, to his great aſtoniſhment, his faithful wife returned in it, with a hundred and fifty ſlaves, which ſhe had brought him. 'You had the generoſity,' ſhe cried, on throwing herſelf into his arms, 'to marry me, in oppoſition to the wiſhes of your friends, and the prejudices of your country, when I had nothing to offer you but my perſon, whoſe charms, whatever they might have been conſidered in my own country, were calculated rather to diſguſt, than to pleaſe you. You will therefore add another proof of your kindneſs, by aſſuring me of your pardon, for having raiſed a ſingle doubt in your mind reſpecting the affection and duty you ſo entirely deſerve from me; but it was my wiſh to avoid informing you of the project I had conceived on my father's death, till it was executed. It was not the little kingdom which that event transferred to me, nor even the largeſt empire, that would ſeparate me from you; my ſole deſign, in the ſtep I have juſt taken, was to make you an offer of a ſmall number of my ſubjects, which is the only part of my inheritance that I can beſtow. I have, at the ſame time, complied with the wiſhes of my people, in reſigning my little ſovereignty to the moſt worthy of my relations.'

Such a ſcene may be more eaſily conceived than deſcribed. Thus Forval found his wife worthy of all his affection; and the preſent ſhe made him, is a ſort of fortune in this country.

ADVENTURES OF A PRINCESS OF RUSSIA, AT MAURITIUS.

[From the SAME.]

CHARLOTTE Chriſtina Sophia de Wolfenbuttel, wife of czarovitz Alexis, ſon of Peter the firſt, czar of Muſcovy, and ſiſter of the empreſs of Charles VI, was born the 25th of Auguſt 1694. This princeſs, though poſſeſſed of beauty, grace, and virtue, in a very high degree, became an object of averſion to her huſband, a man of a moſt ferocious and ſavage character. He had ſeveral times attempted to poiſon her, when ſhe was ſaved by counteracting medicines. At length, he one day gave her ſuch a violent kick on her belly, when ſhe was eight months advanced in her pregnancy, that ſhe fell ſenſeleſs on the floor, which was ſoon encrimſoned with her blood. Peter the firſt, was then engaged in one of his journies. His ſon, having every reaſon to believe that his unfortunate princeſs would not recover, ſet off immediately for his country-houſe.

The counteſs of Koniſmarck, mother of marſhal de Saxe, attended on the princeſs when ſhe was brought to bed of a dead child, and nurſed her

with unceaſing care. Being ſenſible, however, if the princeſs recovered, that ſhe would periſh, ſooner or later, from the brutal nature of the czarovitz, formed a plan to gain over the women belonging to the princeſs, to declare that ſhe and her infant were both dead. The czarovitz accordingly ordered her to be interred without delay and without ceremony. Couriers were diſpatched to the czar to inform him of the event, and all the courts of Europe put on mourning for the bundle of ſticks which was interred.

In the mean time the princeſs, who had been removed to a retired ſpot, recovered her health and ſtrength; when, poſſeſſed of ſome jewels, with a ſum of money which the counteſs of Koniſmarck had procured for her, and clothed in the dreſs of common life, ſhe ſet off for Paris, accompanied by an old German domeſtic, who paſſed for her father. She made but a ſhort ſtay there, and having hired a female ſervant, proceeded to a ſea-port, and embarked for Louiſiana.

Her figure attracted the notice of the inhabitants, and an officer of the colony, named D'Auband, who had been in Ruſſia, recollected her. It was however with ſome difficulty that he could perſuade himſelf of the reality of what he ſaw. Indeed, it was ſcarce poſſible to believe that a woman in ſuch a ſituation, could be the daughter-in-law of the czar Peter. However, to aſcertain the truth, he offered his ſervices to the pretended father, and at length formed an intimate friendſhip with him; ſo that they agreed to furniſh a houſe, and lived together at their common expence.

Some time afterward, the gazettes which arrived in the colony, announced the death of the czarovitz. D'Auband then declared to the princeſs his knowledge of her, and offered to abandon every thing in order to conduct her to Ruſſia. But ſhe, finding herſelf infinitely more happy than when ſhe was within the verge of royalty, refuſed to ſacrifice the tranquillity of her obſcure ſituation, for all that ambition could offer her. She only exacted a promiſe from D'Auband to maintain the moſt inviolable ſecrecy, as well as conduct himſelf toward her as he had hitherto done. He made the moſt ſolemn declaration that he would obey her commands; and it became his intereſt to be faithful. The beauty, underſtanding, and virtues of the princeſs had made a very deep impreſſion on him, and habitual intercourſe had ſerved to ſtrengthen it. He was amiable and young, and ſhe was not inſenſible to his attentions. They continued, however, to live in their uſual way, but became every day dearer to each other.

The old domeſtic, who paſſed for the father of the princeſs, at length died; and ſhe could no longer, according to the rules of decorum, live with D'Auband, as ſhe had hitherto done, under the apparent authority and protection of a parent. In this delicate ſituation, D'Auband unfolded to her the diſpoſitions and ſentiments of his heart; and propoſed to add a new veil to her real condition, by becoming her huſband. She conſented to his propoſition; and this princeſs, who had been deſtined to wear the crown of Ruſſia, and whoſe ſiſter actually wore that of the German empire, became the wife of a lieutenant of infantry. In the firſt year of her marriage ſhe had a daughter, whom ſhe nurſed and educated herſelf, and inſtructed in the French and German languages.

They had lived ten years in this happy ſtate of mediocrity, when D'Auband was attacked with a diſorder, which rendered a chirurgical operation neceſſary, and his wife, alarmed at his danger, inſiſted that it ſhould be performed at Paris. They accordingly ſold their habitation, and embarked in the firſt veſſel that ſailed for France. On their arrival, D'Auband was attended by the moſt ſkilful ſurgeons; and till his cure was com-

pleted, his wife never quitted him for a moment, nor ſuffered any other perſon to perform the tender offices, which were neceſſary in his ſituation: ſhe waited upon him throughout his illneſs with the moſt watchful and patient affection. On his recovery, D'Auband, in order to ſecure her the little fortune which he poſſeſſed, ſolicited from the Eaſt India company, an employment in the Iſle of Bourbon, where he was appointed major.

While he was engaged in ſoliciting this buſineſs, his wife ſometimes went to take the air with her daughter, in the gardens of the Thuilleries. One day as ſhe was ſitting upon the bench, and talking with her daughter in German, that ſhe might not be underſtood by thoſe who were near her, marſhal de Saxe paſſed by, and hearing two ladies ſpeak his own tongue, ſtopped to look at them. The mother lifting up her eyes, and recollecting the marſhal, inſtantly threw them to the ground; when he, ſtill more attracted by her embarraſſment, ſuddenly exclaimed—'Is it poſſible, madam?'—She did not, however, permit him to finiſh the ſentence, but riſing from the ſeat, begged him to accompany her to a more retired part of the garden, where ſhe acknowledged herſelf, and, after having requeſted his entire ſecreſy, invited him to ſee her at her own habitation, where ſhe would inform him of every thing which concerned her.

On the following day, Marſhal de Saxe paid her a viſit, and heard the recital of her adventures, as well as the ſhare which the counteſs of Koniſmarck, his mother, had in them. She conjured him, at the ſame time, not to reveal any thing reſpecting her to the king, till a negociation which her huſband was agitating, was concluded, and which would be completed in three months. The marſhal ſolemnly promiſed to comply with her requeſt, and paid his viſits to her and her huſband in the moſt ſecret manner.

The three months being almoſt expired, the marſhal, on calling to ſee her, was informed, that ſhe and her huſband had quitted Paris two days before, and that M. D'Auband had been named to a majority in the Iſle of Bourbon. On this information, the marſhal went immediately to Verſailles, to give an account to the king of every thing that related to the princeſs; when his majeſty ſent for the miniſter of marine, M. de Machault, and, without aſſigning any reaſon, ordered him to write to the governor of the iſles of Mauritius and Bourbon, to treat M. D'Auband with every mark of diſtinction; which order was punctually executed, according to the report of baron Grant, who had been a long time in her ſociety; and remarks, as an extraordinary circumſtance, that he had ſeen that princeſs pregnant, when ſhe was upward of fifty, about the year 1745. The king alſo wrote to the queen of Hungary, with whom he was then at war, to inform her of the fortune and ſituation of her aunt. The queen accompanied her letter of thanks to the king with one to the princeſs, in which ſhe invited her to come and reſide with her; but on condition that ſhe would quit her huſband and daughter, for whom the king engaged to make a ſuitable proviſion. The princeſs did not heſitate a moment to refuſe theſe conditions, and remained with her huſband till the year 1747, when he died.

Being a widow, and without children, ſhe returned to Paris, and took up her abode at the Hotel de Peru. Her deſign was to retire to a convent; but the queen of Hungary offered to fix her at Bruſſels, with a penſion of twenty thouſand florins; but it is uncertain whether ſhe went to reſide there. She was alive in 1768.

Lapwing or Tewit.

DESCRIPTION OF THE LAPWING.

With an engraving of that Bird, finely coloured after Nature.

THE Lapwing, Tewit, or Pee-wit, or Baſtard Plover, is a ſpecies of the Tringa, a genus of birds belonging to the Grallæ. The Ruff, given in our Magazine of laſt November, is another ſpecies of the ſame genus, and to that article we refer our readers for the generic characters.

This bird is about the ſize of a pigeon. Its bill is black; eyes large and hazel; the top of the head is black, gloſſed with green; a tuft of long narrow feathers iſſues from the back part of the head, ſome of which are four inches in length, and turn upward at the end; the ſides of the head and neck are white, which is interrupted by a blackiſh ſtreak above and below the eye; the back part of the neck is of a very pale brown; the fore part, as far as the breaſt, is black; the back and wing coverts are of a dark green, gloſſed with purple and blue reflections; the quills are black, the four firſt tipped with white; the breaſt and belly are of a pure white; the upper tail coverts and vent pale cheſtnut; the tail is white at the baſe, the end is black, with pale tips, the outer feathers almoſt wholly white; the legs are red; claws black; hind claw very ſhort.

This bird is a very conſtant inhabitant of this country; but as it ſubſiſts chiefly on worms, it is forced to change its place in queſt of food, and is frequently ſeen in great numbers by the ſea-ſhores, where it finds an abundant ſupply. It is every where well known by its loud and inceſſant cries, which it repeats without intermiſſion, while on the wing, and from whence, in moſt languages, a name has been given to it as imitative of the ſound.—The Linnean name is *Tringa Vanellus*, and by Buffon, it is called Le Vanneau. Our more familiar name, however, is the te-wit or pee-wit, from its cry.

The pee-wit is a lively active bird, almoſt conſtantly in motion; it ſports and frolics in the air in all directions, and aſſumes a variety of attitudes; it remains long upon the wing, and ſometimes riſes to a conſiderable height; it runs along the ground very nimbly, and ſprings and bounds from ſpot to ſpot with great agility: the female lays four eggs, of a dirty olive, ſpotted with black; ſhe make no neſt, but depoſits them upon a little dry graſs haſtily ſcraped together; the young birds run very ſoon after they are hatched; during this period the old ones are very aſſiduous in their attention to their charge; on the approach of any perſon to the place of their depoſit, they flutter round his head with cries of the greateſt inquietude, which increaſes as he draws nearer the ſpot, where the brood are ſquatted; in caſe of extremity, and as a laſt reſource, they run along the ground as if lame, in order to draw off the attention of the fowler from any farther purſuit. The young lapwings are firſt covered with a blackiſh down interſperſed with long white hairs, which they gradually loſe, and about the latter end of July, they acquire their beautiful plumage. At this time, according to Buffon, the great aſſociation begins to take place, and they aſſemble in large flocks of young and old, which hover in the air, ſaunter in the meadows, and after rain they diſperſe among the ploughed fields. In the month of October, the lapwings are very fat, and are then ſaid to be excellent eating. Their eggs are conſidered as a very great delicacy, and ſold in the London markets at three ſhillings a dozen.

They are common in moſt parts of Europe, as far as Iceland; change place according to the ſeaſon; are met with in Perſia and Egypt in the winter, and La ham ſays he has ſeen

a ſpecimen from China. What makes them eſteemed as a delicacy, is that their nouriſhment is only ſlugs and worms; theſe they draw out of the ground, morning and evening. They are ſometimes kept in gardens, and by good treatment become both uſeful and familiar.

The following anecdote, communicated to Mr. Bewick, by the Rev. J. Carlyle, is worthy of notice, as it ſhows the domeſtic nature of this bird, as well as the art with which it conciliates the regard of animals, differing from itſelf in nature, and generally conſidered as hoſtile to every ſpecies of the feathered tribes. Two of theſe birds, given to Mr. Carlyle, were put into a garden, where one of them ſoon died; the other continued to pick up ſuch food as the place afforded, till winter deprived it of its uſual ſupply; neceſſity ſoon compelled it to draw nearer the houſe, by which it gradually became familiarized to occaſional interruptions from the family. At length, one of the ſervants, when ſhe had occaſion to go into the back-kitchen with a light, obſerved that the lapwing altered its cry *pee-wit* to obtain admittance. He ſoon grew more familiar; as the winter advanced, he approached as far as the kitchen, but with much caution, as that part of the houſe was generally occupied by a dog and cat, whoſe friendſhip the lapwing at length conciliated ſo entirely, that it was his regular cuſtom to reſort to the fire ſide, as ſoon as it grew dark, and ſpend the evening and night with his two aſſociates, ſitting cloſe by them, and partaking of the comforts of a warm fire-ſide. As ſoon as the ſpring appeared, he left off coming to the houſe, and betook himſelf to the garden; but on the approach of winter, he had recourſe to his old ſhelter and his old friends, who received him very cordially. Security was productive of inſolence; what was at firſt obtained with caution, was afterward taken without reſerve. He frequently amuſed himſelf with waſhing in the bowl, which was ſet for the dog to drink out of, and while he was thus employed, he ſhowed marks of the greateſt indignation if either of his companions preſumed to interrupt him. He died in the aſylum he had choſen, being choaked with ſomething which he picked up from the floor. During his confinement, crumbs of wheaten bread were his principal food, which he preferred to any thing elſe.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXXI.

Anger is like
A full hot horſe, who being allow'd his way,
Self-mettle tires him. SHAKSPEARE.

WHEN the ſacred writer delivered the precept, 'Be angry, and ſin not,' it is generally thought he allowed that anger, under proper regulations, was a lawful paſſion, and the qualification, he has added, by the additional precept 'ſin not,' and afterward 'let not the ſun go down upon thy wrath.' Ever ſince theſe precepts were iſſued, men who think and reflect and wiſh to improve their fellow-creatures, have been offering ſuch commentaries upon them, as may render anger a ſafe and uſeful demonſtration of what paſſes within us. But in this, as in many ſimilar caſes, we have the lamentable experience that precept and practice can very ſeldom be made to unite, and that the impulſe of a moment is ſufficient to defeat the inſtructions of an age. As to confining anger to a day, and ſettling all animoſities be-

fore ſun-ſet, *men of honour* tell us that the thing is impoſſible, and that an affront can in very few caſes be conſidered as an *ephemera*.

To me it appears, who have had many opportunities of obſerving the workings of anger, that it is in a great meaſure guided by the ſituation of life, in which the angry parties are placed, that its appearances and effects do not ſo much depend on temper as on fortune, and that the anger of a man of five thouſand a year, is very different from that of his coachman, or even his houſe ſteward. Whoever has beſtowed much attention on the ſubject will, I think, be convinced that this remark is not without its foundation. Can we doubt, for example, that there muſt be a great difference between a fit of anger in the drawing-room, and another in a public houſe; that a man of quality does not fly in paſſion like one of his ſervants, or that the anger of a cook-maid, who has miſſed an aſſignation with her ſweetheart, will not be very different from that of her lady, who has had a bad run at cards? That anger in theſe perſons ſhould be eſſentially diſſimilar, is not only certain, but perfectly conſiſtent with the orders of rank in ſociety. It may be objected indeed, that we frequently ſee a lord as violently angry with his footman, as his footman (if he dared) could poſſibly be with him. This is granted, but it is to be conſidered that his lordſhip's anger in this caſe, is directed againſt his *footman*, his inferior; let his noble blood take fire againſt a peer of the ſame rank, and we ſhall ſee plainly the amaſing difference.

Thus far, therefore, if anger be not ſubjected to moral precepts, it is put under the controul of certain cuſtoms; and of this we ſhall be particularly ſenſible, if we conſider its different operation in civil ſociety, and among the military. A tradeſman, when in his very angrieſt mood has a great choice of vents and channels, he may either uſe his tongue in a plentiful diſcharge of obloquy and ill names; or he may uſe his fiſt, or he may go to law, and endeavour to divide his paſſion among a jury of his countrymen. A military gentleman on the contrary has no remedy but the field; and ſuch is the neceſſary controul eſtabliſhed over his anger, that although not an atom of it remains in his mind, yet he muſt retain it all in his memory, until the morning of ſatisfaction, be the time ever ſo diſtant. This is not expected from men in trade, becauſe their honour happens to depend on the performance of certain duties, that are better underſtood on the Royal Exchange, than behind Montague-houſe.—It muſt be confeſſed indeed that of late years, ſome confuſion has been introduced; and the civil rank has ſo far treſpaſſed on the practice of the military, that ſome men have ſought the vindication of their honour in Kenſington Gravel-pits, who would have been better employed before the commiſſioners at Guildhall. But the prejudices of the world are ſo ſtrong againſt theſe eccentricities, that no *credit* is ever given to a tradeſman becauſe he can fight a duel, nor will any man be prevented from rejecting a bad bill, merely becauſe either the drawer or the indorſers wear a ſword.

Among other branches of civil ſociety alſo, we find that anger is reſtricted by a profeſſional habit. Of a divine, we are perhaps unreaſonable enough to expect, that he ſhould confine his anger ſtrictly within apoſtolic bounds; and although there be inſtances of ſome gentlemen diſgracing the ſacred profeſſion, by eſtabliſhing the goodneſs of their piſtols, in preference to the orthodoxy of their principles, yet they are conſidered as exceptions to the general rule, if not a ſpecies of impoſtors, who wear the ſkin of the lamb, to conceal the properties of the wolf.—Lawyers we very ſeldom diſcover venting their paſſion in leaden bullets. Indeed their

profeſſion allows them ſuch frequent opportunities, for the moſt copious diſcharge of anger, and they are at the ſame time ſo well remunerated for it, that it would be merely waſte of time for them to attempt any more violent methods. Phyſicians, likewiſe, contrive to keep their anger pretty well under. The ſight of many inſtances of frail mortality, of incurable diſtreſs, and helpleſs agony, muſt naturally excite in them a feeling wholly averſe to the turbulence of anger.

The notion I firſt ſet out with, that difference of fortune makes difference of anger, ſeems to be attended to by all the Cheſterfield's of the day, by all who have taken upon them to preſcribe what ſhall or ſhall not be genteel. They are always cautioning their pupils, not to be in a paſſion like porters and fiſhwomen, without perhaps conſidering that the anger of porters and fiſhwomen is not only expreſſed moſt according to the laws of nature, but is alſo ſhorteſt of duration. Vulgar life expreſſes what it feels, and that directly, and without regard to time or place. Genteel life is for a pent-up anger, to be diſcharged at a proper time, and in a proper place, and before proper company, and it is a work of delay to procure all theſe conveniencies. In low life, anger gets ſo immediate a vent, that we cannot ſuppoſe the conſtitution to be ſo much injured, as when it remains rankling in the heart for days and weeks. Then with regard to its conſequences, I am afraid, the advantage will ſtill appear on the ſame ſide. Boxing is unqueſtionably a vulgar exerciſe, but it is not ſo hurtful as cocking of piſtols, and drawing of triggers. A black eye, or a bloody noſe, are very low and ill-bred marks of paſſion, but they do not ſend a man to his grave ſo ſpeedily as a bullet of lead, or the point of a ſmall ſword. Let it be obſerved alſo that in the anger of the vulgar, there is nothing preconceived, no malicious intent—whereas in the common effuſions of genteel paſſion, all is deliberately prepared, and two perſons go out armed, uncertain which ſhall meet an offended Deity, and both perhaps regardleſs that ſuch a Being exiſts. In theſe reſpects, it is, I hope, no departure from moral decorum, to ſay that the claim of forgiveneſs for intemperate wrath will be more readily granted to him, who is angry through accident, than to him who is revengeful by ſyſtem.

There is one part of the creation, however, who cannot come under any of the denominations I have yet noticed, I mean the fair part, who yet have like paſſions with *ourſelves*, although they are denied the *manly* modes of venting them. Far be it from me to attribute anger to them as a common paſſion. The natural mildneſs and gentleneſs of the ſex, which all acknowledge, is directly againſt ſuch an opinion. Yet as there are exceptions to all general rules, ſo, I am afraid, there are ſome ladies who, like dean Swift's lively correſpondent, the ducheſs of Queenſbury, 'think they have not a clear and diſtinct voice, unleſs they are angry.' Still even here an apology may be made, and a wonderful difference ſtated between their anger and that of the gentlemen. In the firſt place, as already obſerved, it never takes the ſanguinary turn of duelling; our moſt faſhionable belles have not yet learned to meddle with fire arms: Secondly, they cannot go to coffeehouſes, and taverns, and vent their fury on the firſt perſon they meet. For theſe reaſons, the little anger they demonſtrate is very wiſely and conſiderately kept at home, where it can pervade only a very ſmall circle; a viſit, although perhaps of only one perſon, will ſuſpend it inſtantly, and whenever ladies go abroad, they make a point to carry ſmiles and good humour along with them.—Deprived, therefore, of ſo many outlets for their paſſion, it cannot be a matter of ſurpriſe, that when concentrated at home,

in a ſmall parlour, perhaps a bedroom, it ſhould for a time appear conſiderably violent, and be thought uſeleſs in promoting 'a clear and diſtinct voice.'—

From what has been ſaid, it may be inferred, that although we have placed anger under certain reſtraints peculiar to circumſtances of rank and fortune, it may yet be doubted whether more general rules might not be laid down which would equally concern perſons of all ranks and degrees. By leaving oaths, execrations, and blows to the loweſt claſs, we have ſo far done right, but we ſhall perhaps do better by remembering that there is a *great vulgar* as well as a *little vulgar*, and that where the former interfere with or imitate the latter, they ought to be degraded from their own imaginary rank to the claſs to which they properly belong. It is ſuperfluous to give fixed and ſtated laws for the ebullition of paſſion. Whoever is capable of being directed, is capable of thinking, and whoever thinks will not wait even for ſun-ſet to end his anger. If good-breeding ſuppreſſes the declaration of honeſt indignation, it does too much; if it only ſuppreſſes paſſion for a time, it does too little; and anger is at moſt times too dangerous a paſſion to be controuled by *manners*, ſince it is ſo frequently connected with the heart. It is to be regretted that in paſſion we more frequently regard the feeling than the object, and give vent to the bitterneſs of anger, without even conſidering if we have an adequate cauſe.

I ſhall conclude this paper with the remarks of a writer, who has improved his ſtudy of this ſubject by the moſt extenſive obſervation and knowledge of human nature, and who has handled a ſpecies of anger-vent which I have purpoſely omitted, to give his deſcription the preference—I mean

'That fury to which many men give way among their ſervants and domeſtics; they feel their own ignorance, they ſee their own inſignificance; and, therefore, they endeavour, by their fury, to fright away contempt from before them, when they know it muſt follow them behind; and think themſelves eminently maſters, when they ſee one ſully tamely complied with, only leſt refuſal or delay ſhould provoke them to a greater.

'Theſe temptations cannot but be owned to have ſome force. It is ſo little pleaſing to any man to ſee himſelf overlooked in the maſs of things, that he may be allowed to try a few expedients for procuring ſome kind of ſupplemental dignity, and uſe ſome endeavour to add weight, by the violence of his temper, to the lightneſs of his other powers. But this has now been long practiſed, and found, upon the moſt exact eſtimate, not to produce advantages equal to its inconveniencies; for it appears not that a man can by uproar, tumult, and bluſter, alter any one's opinion of his underſtanding, or gain influence, except over thoſe whom fortune or nature have made his dependents. He may, by a ſteady perſeverance in his ferocity, fright his children, and haraſs his ſervants, but the reſt of the world will look on and laugh; and he will have the comfort at laſt of thinking, that he lives only to raiſe contempt and hatred, emotions to which wiſdom and virtue would be always unwilling to give occaſion. He has contrived only to make thoſe fear him, whom every reaſonable being is endeavouring to endear by kindneſs, and muſt content himſelf with the pleaſure of a triumph obtained by trampling on them who could not reſiſt. He muſt perceive that the apprehenſion which his preſence cauſes is not the awe of his virtue, but the dread of his brutality, and that he has given up the felicity of being loved, without gaining the honour of being reverenced.'

A SUMMER'S RAMBLE *to* MIDDLETON-DALE, *and other* CURIOSITIES *in the County of* DERBY, *deſcribed.*

We travel for various purpoſes—to explore the culture of ſoils—to view the curioſities of art—to ſurvey the beauties of nature—and to learn the manners of men; their different politics, and modes of life. GILPIN.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

THE birds were ſinging, the ſkies were clear, the ſun was riſen, 'and ſparkling gems of morning dew' decorated the earth, when we entered the Dale of Middleton. To collect a few curious plants was our concern. But we did not confine ourſelves to this purſuit: other objects frequently diverted us from it. The vaſt magnificence and grandeur of the ſpot ſtruck us with ſilent amaze. A continuous range of turreted rocks extending more than a mile, fronted by large incloſures of different declivities, form this dale. Theſe we viewed by turns; but the prodigious mountains of ſtone chiefly attracted our attention. Here a huge grey rock without a ſingle ornament might be ſeen; there another moſt beautifully decorated with ivy: here ſtood one, down whoſe ſides patches of verdant earth, moſſes, and lichens, had inſinuated themſelves; there a collection of them terminated the view, clothed with trees and ſhrubs, as if nature had made them rulers over their fellows; theſe gave a dignity and an agreeable diverſity to the whole.

After ſurveying the rocks with no ſmall degree of attention, and travelling among them, not without difficulty and danger, we proceeded to viſit a grotto, formed by a Mr. Longſdon, at the foot of Eyam-dale, and furniſhed with foſſils collected in that neighbourhood. Here we expected to have been highly gratified; but we were diſappointed. Theſe foſſils are not, we think, properly diſpoſed: they are cemented to the walls of the grotto; we wiſh that they had been negligently heaped together, or carefully arranged on ſhelves. When we ſee the hand of art deviating from nature, bringing together an heterogeneous collection *undeque collates membres*, riveting and connecting parts into a whole, without reference or analogy, we are diſguſted; we laugh at the incongruity. Indeed, we do not heſitate to pronounce, that a grotto thus completed reſembles a patchwork, or a great leprous ſcab.

We now traverſed the Dale of Eyam without finding any thing that deſerved our notice: from Eyam we proceeded to Stoke. On the moor between theſe places, far diſtant from any houſe or incloſure, we met with a tomb, nearly three parts of a yard in height, perfectly regular and well formed. The ends and ſides, which ſtand upon firm and even baſes, conſiſt of four ſtones, and each ſtone is inſcribed with one word. The words are theſe —VIGILATE — ORATE — NESCITIS — HORAM. The top ſtone bears this inſcription:

HERE LIETH BVRIED THE
BODY OF IOHN HANCOK
SEN: WHO DIED AVG: 7TH.
1666.
REMEMBER MAN,
AS THOV GOST BY
AS THOV ART NOW
EVEN SO WAS I:
AS I DO NOW
SO MVST THOV LYE;
REMEMBER MAN,
THAT THOU SHALT DIE

A few yards from this tomb lie the bodies of John, Elizabeth, Oner, William, Anne, and Alice Hancock, covered with flat ſtones, which reſt on the ground. Theſe are not graced with any exalted ſtrains of poetry: the inſcriptions tell nothing but the names of the perſons who lie there, and the day and month, and year of interment. From the dates it appears that ſeven bodies, all of one family, no doubt, were depoſited here in the

courſe of eight days.—This phenomenon, a tumulus and a number of graves in ſuch an unuſual ſituation, excited our aſtoniſhment. Eager to be informed on the ſubject, we aſked the firſt perſon we ſaw, why the Hancocks, pointing to the tumulus, were buried in yonder hill. From this perſon we learnt, that in the year 1666, the town of Eyam was viſited with a plague, and that the bodies of the Hancocks, and of many others who fell victims to this malady, were, to prevent the ſpread of infection, buried in this lonely ſituation. The pariſh regiſter, he ſaid, would convince us, that from the 7th of September, 1665, to the 7th of November, 1666, there were, in the liberty of Eyam, not leſs than two hundred and ſixty burials. The preſent population of the place is fixed at about nine hundred: what the population was in the year 1664, we cannot determine. But by conſulting the regiſter, if other records are ſilent on this head, and comparing the births and burials of a few years preceding the plague, with as many of the laſt years of the eighteenth century, ſome probable conjecture might be formed.—If any of your correſpondents, Mr. Editor, can tell us how the plague was generated;—we ſuppoſe it came from London to Eyam;—what the population of the place was at that day; or can give us any other particular knowledge of this dire calamity, we ſhall thank him for his communications.

At Stoke-houſe we were highly entertained. The buildings, the lawns, the plantations and gardens, are formed with taſte. We had a great pleaſure in viewing this place; and the pleaſure was much augmented when we heard every tongue profuſe in praiſing its noble proprietor.

We now haſtened to ſee the bath of Middleton-dale. Here the waters very much reſemble thoſe of Matlock; if the bath was in a complete condition, and a ſuitable accommodation provided, this ſpot might poſſibly be much reſorted to. In point of ſcenery it cannot, indeed, compare with Matlock; but it is ſuperior to ſome of our watering-places. It is abſolutely ſuperior to Buxton.

We now determined to viſit Arbor-low, the moſt ſtriking monument of antiquity in the county, and with that to conclude our ramble. We, therefore, next morning, left Middleton-dale, and arrived at Moneyaſh, commonly called Monaſh, a little before noon. From thence, after a very ſhort delay, we walked to mount Arbor-low. This veſtige of antiquity is the remains of a druidical temple. It is a large area, with a few ſtones in the centre, and a great number in a circle, encompaſſed with a ditch and a high mound of earth. We aſcertained neither the ſpace of the area, the depth of the ditch, nor the height of the mound: but we eagerly ſurveyed the ſite of the altar and its relics; we reclined upon them, and indulged ourſelves in reflection. The plants of miſſeltoe* and vervain†, and a ſaven‡ and a pimpernell‖, now crouded upon the imagination. They lay heaped before us; and the magic and deſhumation of theſe puny philoſophers, the druids, merited, we thought, the ſevereſt anathema that could be thundered againſt them. But we pauſed and weighed the ſubject; we remembered that neither paſſion nor ridicule ſhould be indulged when a religion, its offices, and its miniſters, are to be cenſured. We, therefore, wiſhed for a grave and temperate authority to bear us out on this occaſion; and we recollected this neat obſervation of Pliny. Magic among the druids was nothing more than the daughter of medicine, calling out the ſecret powers of nature in the vegetable creation, and concealing their agency under the mantle of religion§. With this author we acquieſced, and con-

* Viſcum *album*. † Verbena *officinales*. ‡ Hycopodium *Selago*.
‖ Samolus *Valerandi*. § Lib. 30. chap. 1.

tinued our reflection.—We thanked our Creator for having placed us here in a day when life and immortality are brought to light; when the dogmas of a rabbi are exploded, and the morality of a God promulgated; when love, humility, peace, and benevolence, the characteriſtics of this great author, are inculcated upon mankind in his word, where there is a full aſſurance, for the evidence is inconteſtible, that he came down from heaven to ſave us; that he died for us; that he triumphed over death and the grave; that he aſcended the heavens; and that he there intercedes for us now, as he once interceded for his murderers, when he ſuffered every indignity and a torture inexpreſſible, and expired with theſe words upon his quivering lips 'Father, forgive them, they know not what they do;'—'Into thy hands I commend my ſpirit.'

We now deſcended the hill, and returned to Moneyaſh. This place, or the vicinage, is celebrated for its fine marbles. We ſaw one of a grayiſh ground, ſtudded to the higheſt degree of plenitude with entrochi. The longitudinal and tranſverſe ſections of the entrochi, and the purple veins which ſpread in elegant and irregular directions, give this marble a very beautiful appearance. Perhaps, it cannot in the whole vie with the ancient marbles of Paros; yet it is a problematical point with us, as we have never ſeen theſe, whether they can, in a certain peculiarity of beauty, ſurpaſs it. After dinner we delivered to our hoſteſs a ſmall bank-note, and deſired her to exchange it for us, that we might defray our bill of expences. As ſhe had no ſilver, her neighbours were, of courſe, ſolicited to ſupply her with ſome. The blackſmith, the barber, the baker, the mercer could not accommodate her. In this dilemma a converſation took place in the family, and it was conjectured—we narrate this with pain—that we were a *ſet of ſharpers.*' A girl then entered the room,—told us that our note could not be exchanged, and affirmed too, that there was but very little money in the place: concluding, that a greater reſpect would be ſhown to gold than to paper, we favoured her with a guinea. In this we were not miſtaken. The girl runs the ſame circuit—the mercer unties the knot: ſhe returns with twenty-one ſhillings.

We ſpeedily mounted our horſes, bade adieu to the town, proceeded with a quick ſtep, and ne'er *caſt one longing, lingering look behind.*

I am, &c.

B. D.

On Decortication, as a MEANS *for* FREEING ORCHARDS *from* INSECTS.

IN general, to ſtrip off the bark of trees, is to kill them; and yet it appears, by ſome experiments made by Dr. Mitchill, of New-York, there is a time of the year when apple-trees (*pyrus malus*) may be peeled from their roots to their boughs, on all ſides, without ſuſtaining any damage from the operation. An experiment was made in 1799 upon an apple-tree, the whole body of which was decorticated, and whoſe branches nevertheleſs retained all their leaves and fruit. In two months after an entire new coat of bark was formed, which inveſted the tree on every ſide. The tree was as healthy and vigorous as ever. The ſeaſon for doing this is when the days are at the longeſt, that is, toward the end of June.

A tree peeled in the ſummer of 1798 outlived the ſucceeding winter, which was a very ſevere one, without being in any reſpect injured. Another, which was denuded in June 1799, produced its bark completely before September, and was as full of fruit as if nothing had been done to it. 'There is no doubt,' ſays Dr. Mitchill, 'that an orchard might be treated in this manner with perfect ſafety, if the operation was well-

timed. The farmers ſay that it will make old trees young again; but I own, though I have ſeveral times been witneſs of the harmleſſneſs of the practice, it looks to me ſtill like a very violent and hazardous remedy. The experiment, however, demonſtrates a moſt remarkable power in the vegetable economy. Whether other trees may be thus decorticated I have not yet learned.'

We may juſt obſerve, that the idea entertained by the American farmers is probably in ſome caſes very well founded; for as trees (apple-trees at leaſt) have the power of re-producing their bark, it muſt ſometimes happen that millions of inſects and eggs of inſects will thus be inſtantaneouſly removed, which otherwiſe would continue to burrow in and feed upon the tree. This circumſtance will account for the trees appearing as healthy after as before the proceſs, even if we ſuppoſe it in ſome meaſure injurious; for, as the health is to be judged of comparatively, it is plain, that a tree allowed to retain its bark, may, in ſuch circumſtances as we have ſtated, be leſs healthy than one that has been ſtripped,

The fact, at any rate, deſerves the ſerious attention of all who have orchards. Would it not be worth while to aſcertain how far trees might be freed from them by decortication, with the view of applying the remedy generally? We need hardly add, that in every caſe of the kind the bark ſhould be carried out of the orchard and burnt, to prevent the inſects from travelling back to the trees; and that a bandage impregnated with ſome fetid ſubſtance ſhould be tied round the lower part of each tree to prevent the inſects that may have fallen during the proceſs from again aſcending. A. T.

PRESENT STATE OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

[From Barrow's Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa.]

BY the capture of the Cape of Good Hope and of Ceylon, the Britiſh language is now heard at the ſouthern extremities of the four great continents or quarters of the globe. Three of theſe have ſubmitted to the power of its arms; and the ſpirit of commerce and adventurous induſtry has directed the attention of its enterprifing ſubjects to the fourth, on the ſmall iſland of Staaten, at the extreme point of South America, where a kind ſettlement has been formed for carrying on the ſouthern whale-fiſhery. Of theſe extreme points, the Cape of Good Hope cannot be conſidered as the leaſt important, either with regard to its geographical ſituation, as favourable for carrying on a ſpeedy intercourſe with every part of the civilized world; or to its intrinſic value, as capable of ſupplying many articles of general conſumption to the mother-country; or as a port ſolely for the numerous and valuable fleets of the Eaſt India company to refreſh at; to aſſemble in time of war for convoy; to reeſtabliſh the health of their ſickly troops, worn down by the debilitating effects of expoſure to a warm climate; and to ſeaſon, in the mild and moderate temperatures of Southern Africa, ſuch of thoſe from Europe as may be deſtined for ſervice in the warmer climate of their Indian ſettlements.

In the early voyages undertaken by the Britiſh merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies, the Cape was always made the general rendezvous and place of refreſhment; and it was then conſidered of ſuch importance, that a formal poſſeſſion was taken of it by two commanders of the company's ſhips in the year 1620, in the name of king James of Great Britain, a period of thirty years antecedent to the eſtabliſhment of the colony by the united provinces.

No further notice ſeems to have been taken by the Britiſh government

of this poſſeſſion at that time; nor does it appear that any kind of interference or contravention was made by it when the Dutch Eaſt India company ſent out Van Reibeck, in order to form a ſettlement there in the year 1650. Till this period the Engliſh, the Portugueſe, and the Dutch had indiſcriminately refreſhed their crews at the Cape. The Portugueſe, who were the firſt diſcoverers of the ſouthern extremity of the continent of Africa, at leaſt in modern times, eſtabliſhed no ſettlement nearer to it than the banks of Rio Infanté, now the Great Fiſh River, and boundary of the colony to the eaſtward, which is nearly 600 miles from the Cape of Good Hope; and this they ſoon abandoned for want of ſhelter for their ſhipping, which they afterward found, farther to the eaſtward, in the bay of De la Goa, ſtill in their poſſeſſion. At length, however, from the very favourable repreſentations of Van Reibeck, then a ſurgeon of one of the Dutch ſhips, the Eaſt India company came to a reſolution to colonize the Cape; and ſince the firſt eſtabliſhment to the préſent war, a period of near 180 years, it continued in their hands. The progreſs of the population and the extent of territory have been tolerably rapid. The former, like ſome of the provinces of North America, has nearly doubled itſelf in every twenty years. It was firſt ſettled in 1650, by a hundred male perſons, to whom were ſhortly afterward ſent out, from the houſes of induſtry in Holland, about an equal number of females; and the préſent population exceeds 20,000 whites: many of theſe, however, have ſince been imported from Europe.

The difficulties that for a time impeded the extenſion of the ſettlement, were principally occaſioned by the number of wild beaſts of various kinds that ſwarmed in every part of the country. In the private journal of the founder of the colony it is noticed, that lions and leopards, wolves and hyænas, committed nightly depredations, for ſome time after the firſt eſtabliſhment, under the walls of the fort. The oppoſition of the native Hottentots ſeems to have given them little interruption. They ſoon diſcovered the predominant paſſion of this weak and peaceable people for ſpirituous liquors, and that a bottle of brandy was a paſſport through every horde. With this and tobacco, iron, and a few paltry trinkets, they purchaſed a part of the country and of their ſtock of cattle, and then took the reſt by force. A caſk of brandy was the price of a whole diſtrict; and nine inches in length of an iron hoop the purchaſe of a fat ox. Deprived, by their paſſion for intoxicating liquors and baubles, of the only means of exiſtence, the numbers of the natives began rapidly to decline; and the encroachments of the ſettlers were in proportion to the diminution of the obſtacles. Finding it unneceſſary to limit the extent of their poſſeſſions, the policy of the government kept pace with the propenſity of its ſubjects to ſpread themſelves wide over the country. It foreſaw that a ſpirit of induſtry, if encouraged in a mild and temperate climate, and on a fertile ſoil, might one day produce a ſociety impatient of the ſhackles impoſed on it by the parent ſtate. It knew, that to ſupply to its ſubjects the wants of life without the toil of labour or the anxiety of care; to keep them in ignorance, and to prevent a ready intercourſe with each other, were the moſt likely means to counteract ſuch a ſpirit. It granted lands, therefore, on yearly leaſes, at the ſmall fixed rent of twenty-four rixdollars (not five pounds ſterling) in any part of the country. A law was alſo paſſed, that the neareſt diſtance from houſe to houſe was to be three miles, ſo that each farm conſiſted of more than 5000 acres of land, and conſequently was rented at the rate of ſomething leſs than a farthing an acre. From a ſcarcity of water, it frequently happened that many farms were at twice that diſtance from each other. No

land was granted in property except in the vicinity of the Cape. As the Dutch advanced, the natives retired; and thoſe that remained with their herds among the new ſettlers, were ſoon reduced to the neceſſity of becoming their ſervants.

No permanent limits to the colony were ever fixed under the Dutch government. The paſtoral life that the peaſantry of the remote diſtricts at all times adopted, required a great extent of country to feed their numerous herds; and the imbecility and eaſy temper of the adjacent tribes of natives favoured their avaricious views; and the government was either unwilling, or thought itſelf unable, to reſtrain them. Having no kind of chart nor ſurvey, except of ſuch diſtricts as were contiguous to the Cape, it poſſeſſed a very limited and imperfect knowledge of the geography of the remoter parts, collected chiefly from the reports of the peaſantry, fallacious often, through ignorance or deſign, or of thoſe who had made excurſions for their profit or pleaſure, or from expeditions ſent out by order, and at the expence of government; and the object of theſe, it would appear, was with the view rather of carrying on a lucrative trade with the bordering tribes of natives than to ſupply uſeful information reſpecting the colony. Attended with the parade of a military guard, ſurgeons, land-ſurveyors, burghers with waggons, oxen, horſes, and Hottentots without number, not one of them has furniſhed a ſingle ſketch even toward aſſiſting the knowledge of the geography of the country. The only perſons who appear to have travelled with no other view than that of acquiring uſeful information, were the governor Van Plettenberg, and the late colonel Gordon. Theſe two gentlemen fixed, upon the ſpot, the boundaries of the colony, as they now ſtand, to the eaſtward. To complete the line of demarcation, through the heart of the country to the weſtern ſhore, was one of the objects of the ſeveral journies that ſupplied the materials of the following pages. The chart that accompanies them was undertaken and executed by the order of the earl of Macartney, in the years 1797 and 1798, when theſe journies were made. It was conſtructed entirely from actual obſervations of latitude and of bearings, eſtimation of diſtances, and frequent angular interſections of remarkable points and objects.

From this chart it appears that the extent and dimenſions of the territory compoſing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

Length from weſt to eaſt.	Miles.
Cape Point to Kaffer Land, -	580
River Kouſſie to Zuureberg, -	520
Breadth from ſouth to north.	
River Kouſſie to Cape Point, -	315
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay, - - - -	160
Mouth of the Tuſh River to Plettenberg's Baaken, - -	225

which gives a parallelogram whoſe mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233, Engliſh miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 ſquare miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants, ſo that each individual might poſſeſs eight and a half ſquare miles of ground. A very great portion, however, of this territory may be conſidered as an unprofitable waſte, unfit for any ſort of culture, or even to be employed as paſture for the ſupport of cattle. Level plains, conſiſting of a hard impenetrable ſurface of clay, thinly ſprinkled over with cryſtallized ſand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few ſtraggling tufts of acrid, ſaline, and ſucculent plant; and chains of vaſt mountains that are either totally naked, or cloathed in parts with ſour graſſes only, or ſuch plants as are noxious to animal life, compoſe at leaſt one half of the colony of the Cape.

Society and Manners.

That portion of the day, not employed in the concerns of trade, is uſually devoted to the gratification of the ſenſual appetites. Few have any taſte for reading, and none for the cultivation of the fine arts. They have no kind of public amuſements except occaſional balls; nor is there much ſocial intercourſe but by family parties, which uſually conſiſt of card-playing or dancing. Money-matters and merchandiſe engroſs their whole converſation. Yet none are opulent, though many in eaſy circumſtances. There are no beggars in the whole colony; and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The ſubſiſtence for theſe is derived from the intereſt of a fund eſtabliſhed out of the church ſuperfluities, from alms, donations, and collections made after divine ſervice, and not from any tax laid upon the public. Except, indeed, a few colonial aſſeſſments for the repairs of the ſtreets and public works, the inhabitants of the Cape have little drawback on their profits or the produce of their labour. The luxury of a carriage and horſes, which in England is attended with an enormous expence, is kept up here for a trifle after the firſt coſt. Thoſe in the town that are uſed only for ſhort excurſions, or for taking the air, are open, and calculated for four or ſix perſons. For making journies they have a kind of light waggon covered with ſail-cloth, and ſufficiently large to hold a whole family with clothes and proviſions for ſeveral days. The coachman is generally one of thoſe people known in the colony by the name of *baſtaards*, being a mixed breed between a Hottentot woman and a European man, or a Hottentot woman, and a ſlave. They make moſt excellent drivers, and think nothing of turning ſhort corners, or of galloping through narrow avenues with eight in hand. The ladies ſeldom take the exerciſe of riding on horſeback, that exerciſe being conſidered as too fatiguing. They generally confine themſelves to the houſe during the day, and walk the mall in the public garden in the cool of the evening.

The Dutch Colonists—their Mode of Life, &c.

At the head of this little valley (Hex-river valley) we were to take leave of every human habitation for at leaſt ſixteen days, the time required to croſs over the Great Karroo, or Arid Deſert, that lay between us and the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet. It therefore became neceſſary to ſupply ourſelves with a ſtock of proviſions, as nothing whatſoever is to be had on the deſert, except now and then an antelope. To thoſe travellers who are furniſhed with a good waggon and a tent, the want of habitations is no great loſs; for few of them, behind the firſt range of mountains, have any ſort of convenience, comfort, or even cleanlineſs. Among the planters of Africa it is true there are ſome who live in a decent manner, particularly the cultivators of the grape. Many of theſe are deſcendants of the French families who, a little more than a century ago, found an aſylum at the Cape of Good Hope from the religious perſecutions that drove them from their own country. But a true Dutch peaſant, or boor, as he ſtyles himſelf, has not the ſmalleſt idea of what an Engliſh farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the neceſſaries, but almoſt every luxury of life might by induſtry be procured, he has the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance, he makes very little uſe of milk or of butter. In the midſt of a ſoil and climate moſt favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes uſe of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a-day his table is loaded with maſſes of mutton, ſwimming in the greaſe of the ſheep's tail. His houſe is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable ſhelter for ſcorpions and ſpiders; and the earthy floors are covered with duſt and dirt,

and ſwarm with inſects, particularly with a ſpecies of the *termes*, which, though not ſo deſtructive as ſome others of this genus, is nevertheleſs a very troubleſome and diſagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the caſe among the grazing farmers, are nearly deſtitute of furniture. A great cheſt that contains all his moveables, and two ſmaller ones that are fitted to his waggon, are the moſt ſtriking articles. The bottoms of his chairs conſiſt of thongs cut from a bullock's hide. The windows are without glaſs; or if there ſhould happen to be any remains of this article, it is ſo patched and daubed as nearly to exclude the light it was intended to admit. The boor notwithſtanding has his enjoyments: he is abſolute maſter of a domain of ſeveral miles in extent; and he lords it over a few miſerable ſlaves or Hottentots without controul. His pipe ſcarcely ever quits his mouth, from the moment he riſes till he retires to reſt, except to give him time to ſwallow his *ſopie*, or a glaſs of ſtrong ardent ſpirit, to eat his meals, and to take his nap after dinner. Unwilling to work, and unable to think; with a mind diſengaged from every ſort of care and reflections, indulging to exceſs in the gratification of every ſenſual appetite, the African peaſant grows to an unwieldy ſize, and is carried off the ſtage by the firſt inflammatory diſeaſe that attacks him.

How different is the lot of the labouring poor in England, who for ſix days in the week are doomed to toil for twelve hours in every day, in order to gain a morſel of bread for their family, and the luxury of a little animal food for the ſeventh day!

The cultivators of the ground, who inhabit the nearer diſtricts to the town, though ſomething better than the breeders of cattle, live but in a very uncomfortable manner in the midſt of profuſion. They have little or no ſociety with each other, and every one ſeems to live ſolely for himſelf. Though removed from each other to the diſtance of ſeveral miles, and enjoying the benefit of many thouſand acres of land, under the rate of a farthing an acre, it is yet a ſingular fact, that ſcarcely any two neighbours are found to be on good terms with each other, but are embroiled perpetually in quarrels and diſputes about the extent of their farms, or the privilege of a ſpring or a water-courſe. One great cauſe of their endleſs diſputes is the abſurd manner of eſtimating diſtance by time. The quantity of land in a government farm, according to the eſtabliſhed cuſtom of the colony, muſt be one hour's walk acroſs it. If one farmer is ſuppoſed to have put down his *baaken*, or ſtake, or land-mark, a little too near to that of his neighbour, the *Feldwagt-meeſter*, or peace officer of the diviſion, is called in, by the latter, to pace the diſtance, for which he gets three dollars. If the Feldwagt-meeſter ſhould happen to regulate his pace to the ſatisfaction of both parties, the affair is ſettled; but as this is not always the caſe, the next ſtep is for the diſcontented party to apply for a commiſſion, conſiſting of the Landroſt, two members of the council, the ſecretary of the diſtrict, and a meſſenger. Theſe gentlemen ſhare fifteen dollars a-day as long as they are out upon the commiſſion to determine how far a man ought to walk in an hour.

The dangerous and difficult roads in every part of the colony, but particularly the kloefs or paſſes of the mountains, and the ſtill more perilous fords of the rivers, ſhow how very little ſenſe is entertained by the peaſantry of public benefits or public conveniences. Each gets over a difficulty as well as he can, and no more is thought about it till it again occurs. An inſtance appeared of this in croſſing the Breede river oppoſite to Brandt Valley, which is done by means of a ſmall flat-bottomed tub, about ſix feet by three. In this machine foot paſſengers haul themſelves over by a rope fixed to two poſts, one on each ſide of the river. When a horſe is to croſs,

the ſaddle is taken off, the rider gets into the tub, and drags the animal after him. But when a waggon is to be tranſported, it muſt firſt be unladen, and the baggage carried over in the veſſel: the carriage is then made faſt by one end to this floating machine, and the other is buoyed up by a caſk, and in this manner it is dragged over. Thus is half a day conſumed in paſſing a ſmall river of thirty or forty yards at the moſt in width, when a few planks, properly put together, would enable them to carry over any ſort of carriage, cattle, or horſes, with ſafety and convenience in five minutes.

The women of the African peaſantry paſs a life of the moſt liſtleſs inactivity. The miſtreſs of the family, with her coffee-pot conſtantly boiling before her on a ſmall table, ſeems fixed to her chair like a piece of furniture. This good lady, born in the wilds of Africa, and educated among ſlaves and Hottentots, has little idea of what, in a ſtate of ſociety, conſtitutes female delicacy. She makes no ſcruple of having her legs and feet waſhed in warm water by a ſlave before ſtrangers; an operation that is regularly performed every evening. If the motive of ſuch a cuſtom were that of cleanlineſs, the practice of it would deſerve praiſe; but to ſee the tub with the ſame water paſſed round through all the branches of the family, according to ſeniority, is apt to create ideas of a very different nature. Moſt of them go conſtantly without ſtockings and ſhoes, even when the thermometer is down to the freezing point. They generally, however, make uſe of ſmall ſtoves to place the feet on. The young girls ſit with their hands before them as liſtleſs as their mothers. Moſt of them, in the diſtant diſtricts, can neither read nor write, ſo that they have no mental reſources whatever. Luckily, perhaps, for them, the paucity of ideas prevents time from hanging heavy on their hands. The hiſtory of a day is that of their whole lives. They hear or ſpeak of nothing but that ſuch-a-one is going to the city, or to church, or to be married, or that the Boſjeſmans have ſtolen the cattle of ſuch-a-one, or the locuſts eaten their corn. The young people have no meetings at fixed periods, as in moſt country-places, for mirth and recreation. No fairs, no dancing, no muſic, nor amuſement of any ſort. To the cold phlegmatic temper and inactive way of life may perhaps be owing the prolific tendency of all the African peaſantry. Six or ſeven children in a family are conſidered as very few; from a dozen to twenty are not uncommon; and moſt of them marry very young, ſo that the population of the colony is rapidly increaſing. Several, however, of the children die in their infancy, from ſwellings in the throat, and from eruptions of the ſame kind they are ſubject to in the Cape. Very few inſtances of longevity occur. The manner of life they lead is perhaps leſs favourable for a prolonged exiſtence than the nature of the climate. The diſeaſes of which they generally die in the country are bilious and putrid fevers and dropſies.

The men are in general much above the middle ſize, very tall and ſtout, but ill made, looſely put together, awkward, and inactive. Very few have thoſe open ingenuous countenances that among the peaſantry of many parts of Europe ſpeak their ſimplicity and innocence. The deſcendants of French families are now ſo intermarried with thoſe of the original ſettlers, that no diſtinction, except the names, remains. And it is a remarkable fact, that not a word of the French language is ſpoken or underſtood by any of the peaſantry, though there be many ſtill living whoſe parents were both of that nation. Neither is a French book of any kind to be ſeen in their houſes. It would ſeem as if theſe perſecuted refugees had ſtudied to conceal from their children their unfortunate hiſtory and their country's diſgraceful conduct.

The means of education, it is true,

muſt be very difficult to be had among a people ſo widely ſcattered over a vaſt extent of country, as the peaſantry are in the colony of the Cape. Some have a perſon in the houſe whom they call the ſchoolmaſter. This is generally a man who had ſerved out his time in the ranks. His employment, in this new ſituation, is not only to inſtruct the children to read, to write, to ſing pſalms, and get by heart a few occaſional prayers, but he muſt alſo make himſelf ſerviceable in other reſpects. At one place that we paſſed, the poor ſchoolmaſter was driving the plough, while a Hottentot had the more honourable poſt of holding and directing it. The children of thoſe who either cannot obtain, or afford to employ ſuch a perſon, can neither read nor write; and the whole of their education conſiſts in learning to ſhoot well, to crack and uſe with dexterity an enormous large whip, and to drive a waggon drawn by bullocks.

A book of any kind is rarely ſeen in any of the farmers' houſes, except the Bible and William Sluiter's Geſangen, or ſongs out of the Bible, done into verſe by the Sternhold and Hopkins of Holland. They affect to be very religious, and carry at leaſt the devotion of religion fully as far as the moſt zealous bigots. They never ſit down to table without a long grace before meat pronounced, with an audible voice by the youngeſt of the family; and every morning before daylight one of William Sluiter's Geſangen is drawled out in full chorus by an aſſemblage of the whole family. In their attendance at church they are ſcrupulouſly exact, though the performance of this duty coſts many of them a journey of ſeveral days. Thoſe who live at the diſtance of a fortnight or three weeks from the neareſt church generally go with their families once a year.

Rude and uncultivated as are their minds, there is one virtue in which they eminently excel—hoſpitality to ſtrangers. A countryman, a foreigner, a relation, a friend, are all equally welcome to whatſoever the houſe will afford. A Dutch farmer never paſſes a houſe on the road without alighting, except indeed his next neighbour's, with whom it is ten to one he is at variance. It is not enough to inquire after the health of the family in paſſing: even on the road, if two peaſants ſhould meet, they inſtantly diſmount to ſhake hands, whether ſtrangers or friends. When a traveller arrives at a habitation, he alights from his horſe, enters the houſe, ſhake hands with the men, kiſſes the women, and ſits down without farther ceremony.—When the table is ſerved he takes his place among the family, without waiting for an invitation. This is never given, on the ſuppoſition that a traveller in a country ſo thinly inhabited muſt always have an appetite for ſomething. Accordingly, 'What will you make uſe of?' is generally the firſt queſtion. If there be a bed in the houſe, it is given to the ſtranger; if none, which is frequently the caſe among the graziers of the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet, he muſt take his chance for a form, or bench, or a heap of ſheep-ſkins, among the reſt of the family. In the morning, after a ſolid breakfaſt, he takes his *ſopie*, or glaſs of brandy, orders his ſlave or Hottentot to ſaddle the horſes, ſhakes hands with the men, and kiſſes the women: *he* wiſhes them health, and *they* wiſh him a good journey. In this manner a traveller might paſs through the whole country.

If the economy of the African farmer's houſe be ill managed, that of his land is equally bad. The graziers, indeed, in many places, are not at the trouble of ſowing any grain, but exchange with others their cattle for as much as may be neceſſary for the family conſumption. But even thoſe who have corn-farms near the Cape ſeem to have no kind of management. They turn over a piece of ground with a huge miſhapen plough, that requires eight or ten horſes, or a dozen oxen, to drag it along: the ſeed is

ſown in the broad-caſt way, at the rate of about a buſhel and a half to an acre; a rude harrow is juſt paſſed over it, and they reap from ten to fifteen to one. No manure comes upon the ground except a ſprinkling for barley. In low ſituations near rivulets, where the water can be brought upon the ground, they reap from thirty to forty for one. Water in fact is every thing in Southern Africa. Not like the Chineſe, whoſe great art of agriculture conſiſts in ſuiting the nature and habit of the plant to that of the ſoil, which he alſo artificially prepares, the Dutch peaſant at the Cape is ſatisfied if he can command only a ſupply of water. He beſtows no kind of labour on the ground but that of throwing in the ſeed: the reſt is left to chance and the effects of an excellent climate. The time of ſeeding is in the months of May and June; and of harveſt, from November to January. The grain is trodden out by horſes on circular floors in the open air; and the ſtraw is left to rot or to be ſcattered about by the winds.

THEATRE.

AN hiſtorical drama, called DEAF AND DUMB, was performed for the firſt time, at the Theatre-royal, Drury-lane, Feb. 25.

Dramatis Perſonæ.

Julio of Harancour (Theodore) Miſs De Camp; Darlemont, Mr. Wroughton; St. Alme, Mr. C. Kemble; Franval, Mr. Barrymore; De L'Epée, Mr. Kemble; Dupré, Mr. Banniſter, jun. Pierre, Mr. Palmer; Dominic, Mr. Suett; Madame Franval, Miſs Pope; Marianne, Mrs. Mountain; Claudine, Mrs. Sparks.

This drama is a tranſlation from the Abbe de l'Epee, in French, which has been tranſlated into German by Kotzebue. Both *The Deaf and Dumb, or the Orphan*, in its original ſtate, and in its verſion by Kotzebue, are at this moment performing with general applauſe on the ſtages of Paris and Vienna.

The fable poſſeſſes intereſt and novelty, and is ſuppoſed to record an event that happened in France many years before the Revolution. In the following ſketch, we have preſerved what is moſt curious and affecting:

'The count d'Harancour, preſident of the high court of juſtice in the province of Languedoc, dies, leaving his orphan ſon Julio, deaf and dumb, then in his tenth year, under the guardianſhip of Darlemont, his wife's brother. Darlemont takes the boy with him to Paris, and having dreſſed him in rags, abandons him on the Pont-Neuf, 'with all the world before him, and Providence his guide.' In this ſtate of wretchedneſs, he is placed under the protection of l'Abbé de l'Epée, the celebrated inſtructor of the Deaf and Dumb. He was affected by a certain dignity in the boy's looks, who expreſſed ſtriking marks of aſtoniſhment and ſorrow at finding himſelf in that beggarly attire. Convinced, from theſe demonſtrations, that he had been thus clothed and expoſed, the Abbé deſcribed his perſon in the newſpapers, but without effect. He next endeavoured to obtain information from the boy himſelf, gave him the name of Theodore, and received him among his pupils. He ſoon converſed with him in ſigns with a rapidity which almoſt equalled thought. As they paſſed one day before a court of juſtice in Paris, they ſaw a judge alight from his carriage, and Theodore was unuſually affected at the ſight. The Abbé inquired the cauſe, and he learned that a man dreſſed like the judge, in purple and ermine, had often embraced his pupil, and ſhed tears over him. Another time they met the funeral of a nobleman, and Theodore was ſo deeply agitated, that as the hearſe paſſed, he wept, trembled, and fell into the arms of his maſter. De l'Epée having again queſtioned him, he replied by ſigns, that a ſhort time before he was conveyed to Paris, he had followed the hearſe in which was the man who had ſo often careſſed him. From theſe circumſtances, he concluded that the father of his pupil had been the magiſtrate of a ſuperior court of juſtice; that he was himſelf an orphan, and had, in conſequence of his helpleſs ſituation, been deprived of his fortune. Theſe important diſcoveries redoubled his zeal and reſolution. He aſked Theodore whether he remembered when he was firſt brought to Paris, who anſwered in the affirmative, and added, he ſhould know the gate through which he entered. The next morning they viewed ſome of the gates,

and having come to one which was the grand entrance from the South of France, Theodore inſtantly recogniſed it as that through which he had entered the city with two conductors. He alſo ſtated, that he had been ſeveral days on the road, and that the horſes were changed many times in the day. The Abbé concluded, that his pupil's native place was one of the principal towns in the Southern provinces, and after many uſeleſs enquiries, determined to make a tour through them with Theodore. They at length arrived at Toulouſe, and the firſt gate they ſaw was eagerly recogniſed by the young man, now in his eighteenth year. As they proceeded through the city, his appearance became more animated, and tears fell from his eyes. He knew many of the public buildings, and having obſerved a palace, he uttered a loud ſhriek, threw himſelf breathleſs into his maſter's arms, and pointed out his father's habitation. The Abbé found that it belonged to Darlemont, who became poſſeſſed of it, and all the fortune of the Harancour family, in conſequence of the death of Julio, which was atteſted by falſe declaration. The Abbé thus ſatisfied, at length finds proofs of Darlemont's guilt in the evidence of his accomplice, Dupré, formerly Harancour's ſervant, in the recollection of Julio's nurſe, and in a wound which his pupil ſtill retains on his arm, received in his efforts to preſerve his couſin St. Alme's life, when attacked by a wolf, while they were ſtill play fellows. Darlemont conſents to reſtore the eſtate to his nephew Julio, who generouſly beſtows half of it on his couſin St. Alme.

Kemble's deſcription of educating Julio was admirably given. Wroughton, C. Kemble, Barrymore, Banniſter, Suett, and Palmer, gave to their reſpective parts every poſſible effect, and Miſs De Camp happily ſucceeded in ſuiting the action to the thought.

The piece was received throughout with the greateſt applauſe.

INTERESTING SCENES FROM DEAF AND DUMB.

THE firſt extract is taken from the Second Scene of Act I, where Theodore firſt expreſſes his knowledge of the Palace of Harancour.

A Square in the City of Toulouſe. On one Side the Palace of Harancour, on the other the Houſe of FRANVAL, Bridge, Church, &c.

Enter DEL' EPS'E and THEODORE.

[Theodore precedes Del' Epée, and advancing in great agitation expreſſes, by ſigns, that he recollects the ſpot they are in.]

DEL'E. This warm emotion — this ſudden change in all his features—convinces me that he recollects this place.—Hadſt thou the uſe of ſpeech!

[Theodore, looking round him, obſerves a church, and gives ſigns more expreſſive of his knowing the place.]

DEL'E. It is—it muſt be ſo;—and am I then at length arrived at the period of my long and painful ſearch!—

[Theodore now ſees the Palace of Harancour: he ſtarts—rivets his eyes to it—advances a ſtep or two—points to the ſtatues—utters a ſhriek—and drops breathleſs into the arms of Del'Epée.]

DEL' E. Ah, my poor wronged boy,—for ſuch I'm ſure you are,—that ſound goes to my very heart!—He ſcarcely breathes.—I never ſaw him ſo much agitated.—There, there;—Come, come.—Why was a voice denied to ſenſibility ſo eloquent!

[Theodore makes ſigns with the utmoſt rapidity, that he was born in that Palace,—that he lived in it when a child—had ſeen the ſtatues—come through the gate, &c. &c.]

DEL'E. Yes;—in that houſe was he born. Words could not tell it more plainly.—The care of Heaven ſtill wakes upon the helpleſs.

[Theodore makes ſigns of gratitude to Del'Epée, and fervently kiſſes his hands.—Del' Epeé explains that it is not to him, but to Heaven, that he ought to pay his thanks—Theodore inſtantly drops on his knee, and expreſſes a prayer for bleſſings on his benefactor.]

DEL'E. [Bare-headed—bows, and ſays] O, thou, who guideſt at thy will the thoughts of men,—thou, by whom I was inſpired to this great undertaking.—O, power omnipotent!—deign to accept the grateful adoration of thy ſervant, whom thou haſt ſtill protected—and of this ſpeechleſs orphan, to whom thou haſt made me a ſecond father!—If I have uprightly diſcharged my duty,—if all my love and labours for him may dare to aſk a benediction,—vouchſafe to ſhed its dews on this forlorn one, and let his good be all my great reward!——

[Del' Epée raiſes Theodore, and embraces him.]

We muſt proceed with caution:—and, firſt, to learn who is the owner of this houſe.

[Theodore is running to knock at the gate —Del' Epée ſtops him, &c.]

Enter PIERRE.

PIE. Well—that Preſident is the beſt natured gentleman—

DEL'E. O, here comes one that may, perhaps, inſtruct me. [Signs to Theodore to attend] Pray, Sir, can you tell me the name of this ſquare?

PIE. [aſide.] Strangers, I perceive—It is called St. George's ſquare, Sir.—[Looking at Theodore.]

DEL'E. Thank you, Sir.—Another word—Do you know this ſuperb manſion?

PIE. [obſerving Del'Epée and Theodore more cloſely.] Know it!—I think I ought;—I've lived here theſe five years.

DEL'E. That's fortunate. And you call it——

PIE. [Aſide.] Plaguy inquiſitive!—A few years ago it was called the Palace of Harancour—

DEL'E. Of Harancour?

PIE. But at preſent it belongs to a gentleman of the name of Darlemont. [Obſerving Theodore.] 'Tis odd—He ſeems to talk by ſigns;—Is he dumb?—

[During the above dialogue, Theodore examines the gateway, pillars, arms, &c. of the Palace of Harancour: and explains to Del'Epée, his recollection of the various objects, &c.

DEL'E. And,—who is this gentleman of the name of Darlemont?

[Theodore now turns his face fairly toward Pierre.]

PIE. 'Gad, how like it is!—Sir?—Who is he?

DEL'E. Yes;—I mean, what is his rank, his profeſſion?

PIE. [ſtill looking at Theodore.] Profeſſion!—He has no profeſſion, Sir;—He's one of the richeſt men in Toulouſe:—[Looking at Theodore.]—One might almoſt ſwear to it. Your ſervant, Sir;—I'm wanted. [Aſide] Very odd, all theſe queſtions. [Looking at Theodore.] The ſtrongeſt likeneſs I ever ſaw in my life.

[Exit Pierre into the Palace.

DEL'E. Ay, my friend;—you little know the motive of my queſtions. There's not a moment to be loſt.—This houſe, that once belong'd to ſo diſtinguiſhed a family,—this Darlemont, the preſent poſſeſſor of it,—every circumſtance relating to it,—muſt be publicly known in Toulouſe. I'll inſtantly away,—ſeek out ſome lodging, and then—But, for fear it ſhould eſcape me—[writes in a note-book]—Harancour,—Darlemont.

[Theodore, as Del'Epée writes, runs to him with eager curioſity—Del'Epée preſſes him in his arms.]

DEL'E. Yes, my poor mute Theodore; if you belong to parents who can feel, no doubt, they ſtill lament your loſs,—and will with tranſport hail your return;—If, as I fear, you are the victim of unnatural foul-play, grant me, Providence, to unmaſk and confound it! So men ſhall have another proof, that every fraud will ſoon or late be detected, and that no crime eſcapes eternal juſtice.

[Exit Del'Epée, leading Theodore, who looks back at the Palace of Harancour, &c.]

The under plot of this play conſiſts of the attachment between St. Alme and Marianne, ſiſter to Franval, which occupies part of the ſecond Act. To the family of Franval, the Abbé is thus introduced.

Enter the Abbé Del'Epée, introduced by Dominique.

DOM. Walk in, Sir; pray walk in.

[Exit Dominique.

DEL'E. [Salutes the Ladies; then Franval] I preſume, Sir, you are Monſieur Franval?

FRAN. At your ſervice.

DEL'E. Could you favour me with a few moments converſation?

FRAN. Very willingly. May I take the liberty of aſking, who——

DEL'E. I am from Paris,—My name is Del'Epée.

FRAN. Del'Epée!—The inſtructor of the Deaf and Dumb?

DEL'E. [bows.]

FRAN. Madam—ſiſter,—you ſee before you one, who is an honour to human nature.

Del'E. Sir.—

[The Ladies ſalute Del'Epée with great reſpect.]

FRAN. How often have I admired you as the benefactor of mankind, as the diſpenſer of the moſt valuable gifts of Heaven!

DEL'E. Then have I been fortunate indeed, in applying myſelf to you.

FRAN. How can I ſerve you?

DEL'E. By aiding me to redreſs the injur'd.—Your high reputation, Sir, has brought me hither, in order to communicate to you an affair of the utmoſt importance.

MAD. F. Daughter, we'll retire. [Going.]

DEL'E. If you have time to liſten, Ladies, pray ſtay;—It is my earneſt wiſh to intereſt every virtuous and feeling heart in the cauſe I have undertaken.

MAD. F. If we have your leave, Sir.

FRAN. Be ſeated, pray, Sir.

DEL'E. Perhaps, you will think my ſtory tedious: yet I muſt be particular.

MAR. How intereſting an appearance?

FRAN. Pray, proceed!

DEL'E. This, then, is my buſineſs. About eight years ago, a boy, deaf and dumb, found in the dead of night on the Pont Neuf, was brought to me by an officer of the Police. From the meanneſs of his dreſs, I ſuppoſed him of poor parents, and undertook to educate and provide for him.

FRAN. As I know you have done for many others.

DEL'E. I ſoon remarked an uncommon intelligence in his eyes; a well-manner'd eaſe and aſſurance in his behaviour; and, above all, a ſtrange and ſorrowful ſurprize in his looks, whenever he examined the coarſeneſs of his cloathing:—In a word, the more I ſaw, the more I was convinced, that he had been purpoſely loſt in the ſtreets. I gave a public, full, minute deſcription of the unhappy foundling; but in vain. Few will claim intereſt in the unfortunate.

FRAN. Ah! few, indeed!

DEL'E. Plac'd among my ſcholars, he profited ſo well by my leſſons, that he was, at laſt, able to converſe with me by ſigns, rapid, almoſt, as thought itſelf. One day, as we were paſſing the High Court of Juſtice, a Judge alighted from his carriage:—The ſight gave Theodore—for ſo I called him—an emotion violent and inſtant:—The tears ran down his cheeks in torrents, while he explain'd to me, that, when a child, a man, who often wore ſimilar robes of purple and ermine, had been accuſtomed to careſs, and take him in his arms. Obſerve:—Another time, a grand funeral paſſed us in the ſtreets;—I watch'd the various changes in his colour, and learn'd that he had himſelf, long ago, follow'd the coffin of the very perſon, by whom he had been thus fondly careſs'd.—I could not be miſtaken.—I concluded, that he was probably the orphan heir of ſome chief magiſtrate, purpoſely turned adrift in a ſtrange and populous city—defrauded, robb'd, and even fortunate to have eſcap'd with life.

MAR. Poor youth!

DEL'E. Theſe ſtrong preſumptions redoubled all my hope and zeal.—Theodore grew every day more and more intereſting. He confirmed to me many circumſtances of his ſtory:—Yet, how proceed in his behalf? He had never heard his father's name, he neither knew his family, nor the place of his birth. Well, Sir,—ſome months ago, as we went through the Barrière d'Enfer, obſerving a carriage ſtopp'd and examined, the recollection ſuddenly ſtruck him, that this was the very gate through which he entered Paris, and that the chaiſe, in which he travelled with two perſons, whom he well remember'd, had, in this very ſpot, been thus viſited. I ſee,—I ſee it in your eyes,—you anticipate my firm conviction, that he came from ſome city in the ſouth of France, of which, in all likelihood, his father had been the chief magiſtrate.

FRAN. For Heaven's ſake, Sir, go on.

DEL'E. Finding all my reſearches ineffectual, I reſolved, at laſt, to take my pupil with me, and traverſe, in perſon, and on foot, the whole of the ſouth of France.—We embraced each other, invoked the protection of Heaven, and ſet forward. After a journey—long—fatiguing—almoſt hopeleſs—we this morning—bleſs'd be the divine Providence!—arrived at the gates of Toulouſe.

FRAN. Good Heavens!

DEL'E. He knew the place, he ſeiz'd my hand, utter'd wild cries of joy, and led me quickly, here and there, thro' various quarters of the city. At laſt, we arrived at this ſquare: he ſtopped—pointed to the manſion oppoſite your door—ſhrieked, and ſenſeleſs dropp'd into my arms.

FRAN. The palace of Harancour!

DEL'E. Yes,—and from the enquiries I have already made, I am convinced that my poor boy is the lawful heir of that family; and that his inheritance has been ſeized by his guardian and maternal uncle,—Darlemont.

MAD. F. I don't doubt it.—O, the wretch! [She riſes.]

DEL'E. To you, Sir, I have been directed,—to your talents,—to your virtue:—And to you, in the names of juſtice and humanity, I now addreſs myſelf for aid.—Earth, Heaven, and all the bleſſings it can promiſe, will ſecond my petition.—O, let the voice of irreſiſtible truth be rais'd in his behalf!—Let not a noble orphan, denied the precious bounties of nature, and quickened by theſe privations into ten-fold ſenſibility—let him not, I conjure you,—let him not fall the victim of the ambitious and the baſe!—

FRAN. Sir, could I have liſtened to a tale like this unmoved, I were unworthy the form and name of man. [To Mad. F.] If ever I were truly proud of my profeſſion, Madam, it is at this moment, when I am call'd upon to aſſault the powerful, and defend the helpleſs. [To Del'E.] Sir, the faculties of life, body, and ſoul, while I poſſeſs them, ſhall be employed to ſerve him.

In Act III, occurs the following dialogue between DARLEMONT and DUPRE (his ſervant) highly characteriſtic of the accuſing conſcience.

Enter DUPRE', abruptly, having a paper in his hand.

Now, Sir,—Who ſent for you? What want you here?

DUP. I come, to unburthen a loaded conſcience.

DAR. I'm buſy—and can't be troubled.

DUP. I come to—[holding out the paper.]

DAR. Did you hear me?—I'm buſy.

DUP. Sir, Sir, you waſte your anger on me: you have laid a crime on my ſoul, that annihilates the duties and diſtance of my calling: I caſt off the ſervant, and aſſume the man.

DAR. What is it you mean by this inſolence?

DUP. Firſt, Sir, pleaſe to take back the annuity you have ſent me.

DAR. [Snatches the paper] Take back—Is it not yet ſufficient? I thought it beyond your hopes. Your conſcience knows its price.

DUP. No, Sir,—you wrong me;—'twas when I had no conſcience, that I had a price.

DAR. Liar! You come to practice on me. You,—Tattler!—Goſſip of ſworn ſecrets! Perjurer!—Go—; oint, and pretend to ſtart at pictures—pernicious dotard!—Conſcience? 'Tis falſe,—No; 'tis to wring my purſe, you act remorſe, and feign this pity for a thing—who, ſay the beſt, was but an ideot, an automaton.

DUP. Of me, Sir, think what you will; I have deſerv'd it:—but, in behalf of that injur'd youth, I muſt retort the falſehood.

DAR. You!

DUP. I.—Though ſpeech and hearing were denied him, yet nature recompens'd him with a mind that glow'd with intelligence, and a heart that ran over with benevolence. And you, Sir;—is your heart ſo deadened by the injuries you've done him, that you forget it was this ideot ſaved the life of that moſt excellent young man, your only ſon? Did not Julio,—regardleſs of danger to himſelf—and thoughtful only for St. Alme, when the fierce wolf had faſtened on his throat, did he not bravely rend aſunder his bloody jaws, receiving in his own arm a wound, ſo deep and dangerous, that the ſcar could never be effaced?

DAR. Silence, I charge you!

DUP. When I call to mind his infancy,—his pretty looks,—his fond kiſſes, when I have borne him in my arms,—and think, how I yielded—weak and wicked as I was—to your temptations, and abandon'd him to periſh—poor helpleſs babe!—in a wide unpitying world,—I could call for curſes on my head, proclaim my guilt, and take delight in the abhorrence and puniſhment, with which men enraged, and the juſt laws, would purſue me to deſtruction.

DAR. Hence, raving viſionary!—The ſerpent that ſtung the friend that foſter'd him, paid with life the forfeit of his ingratitude.—[Puts his hand on his ſword.]—Coward, beware!—Shall my honour ſtand in danger from your treachery?

DUP. Treachery has never enter'd my mind. Julio is gone—and the crime cannot be repaired: yet the ſincere repentance of a ſervant, might claim reſpect from that maſter, who, after a blameleſs life of forty years, had ſeduc'd him to villainy.

DAR. Villainy!

DUP My part was impious villainy;—what your's was—aſk of the vexing thoughts, that nightly take watch on the pillow of the wicked.

DAR. Urge me no further.—Lectur'd by my ſlave!—a worm that crawls at the mercy of my foot!—Becauſe I have forborne, preſum'ſt thou that I dare not ſtrike?—Hence!—Here, take thy recompenſe;—[Offering him the paper.]—Be thankful, and obedient:—Guard thy lips, or——

DUP. No!—Vile—as you think me, my ſilence is not to be bought;—my ſins ſhall not be penſioned.—Hitherto you are ſafe—Don't let your inſults drive me to diſcloſe you.

DAR. Here, here—and have done.—[Offering him the paper.]

DUP. You are deceiv'd;—I was brib'd, not by your gold; but by the wild vanity of ſharing your confidence, your familiarity,—and becoming—inſtead of him you call your ſlave—your friend.

DAR. Such you might have been.

DUP. No—there can be no friendſhip in guilt.—'Tis my doom to live in dread

of you, and of my own reflections.—'Tis yours to know, that your honour and life are in the keeping of a man, ſtung in conſcience, diſtracted in mind, and by yourſelf render'd a wretch, infamous, and never more to be truſted. [Exit Dupré.

The introduction of Theodore is particularly intereſting and important to the diſcovery.

Enter DEL'EPE'E, introducing THEODORE.

DEL'E. In obedience to your kind commands, I preſent to you my adopted child, my Theodore. This, Sir, is the orphan, whoſe ſtory you have heard, and whoſe wrongs you will redreſs.

[Theodore, having ſaluted them with great vivacity, fixes his eyes on Franval.]

MAR. How intelligent, and animated a look!

MAD. F. The perfect image of his late father!

DEL'E. [earneſtly] Do you ſay ſo, Madam?

MAD. F. I ſee his father in him, at his age, as if he ſtood before me.

[Theodore, to whom Del'Epée is attentive, points to Franval—Lays the fore-finger of his right hand on his forehead, and aſſumes an expreſſion of genius; then darts his arm forward with force, grandeur, &c.]

DEL'E. Ay! He tells me, that he reads in your countenance the certainty of triumphing, and confounding his oppreſſor.

FRAN. Yes; I have given him my promiſe, and will perform it.

[Theodore, having touched his lips with a look of regret, ſeizes the hand of Franval—holds it to his heart; and, with his other hand, beats quickly and often on the boſom of Franval.]

DEL'E. Ah! that he could ſpeak his gratitude! But, by the throbbings of his heart, he bids you learn, that your goodneſs to him will live there for ever. Theſe are his true expreſſions.

FRAN. Are you then ſo perfectly comprehenſible to each other?

MAD. F. Are your ſigns ſo minutely accurate?

DEL'E. As ſpeech itſelf.

MAR. And does he underſtand every thing you deſire to expreſs?

DEL'E. You ſhall have proof of it this moment.

[Del'Epée taps Theodore on the ſhoulder, to make him obſerve—Rubs his forehead, then points to Marianne, and writes a line or two with his finger on the palm of his left hand. Theodore nods to Del'Epée—runs to Franval's table—ſits down, ſnatches up a pen, and ſhows that he is ready to write.]

DEL'E. Now, Madam, make what enquiry you pleaſe of him, he will copy it down from my action, and immediately give you his reply. He waits for you.

MAR. [With timidity.] I really don't know what to—

FRAN. Any thing! Any thing!

MAD. F. Ay, ay, child; the firſt thing that comes into your head.

MAR. [After a moment's reflection.] In your opinion—

DEL'E. Speak ſlowly, and repeat the queſtion, as if you were dictating to him yourſelf.

[Theodore expreſſes that he attends to Del'Epée's ſigns.]

Mar. In your opinion,—

DEL'E. [makes a ſign.]

[Theodore writes.]

MAR. Who is the greateſt genius—

DEL'E. [makes a ſign.]

[Theodore writes.]

MAR. That France has ever produced?

DEL'E. [makes a ſign.]

[Theodore writes.]

DEL'E. [Takes the paper from the table and ſhows it to Franval.] You ſee he has written the queſtion diſtinctly.

[Del'Epée returns the paper to Theodore, who for a moment ſits motionleſs and meditating.]

MAR. He ſeems a little at a loſs.

DEL'E. I don't wonder at it,—it's a delicate queſtion.

[Theodore ſtarts from his reverie,—looks affectionately at Del'Epée—wipes his eyes, and writes with the utmoſt rapidity.

FRAN. Look, look, what fire ſparkles in his eyes! What animation in every turn! I dare promiſe you this will be the anſwer of a feeling heart, and an enlightened mind.

[Theodore ſtarts up—preſents the paper to Marianne—and deſires her to read it to the company. Madame Franval and Franval look eagerly over Marianne, as ſhe reads;—Theodore runs to Del'Epée, and looks at him with fond curioſity.]

MAR. [Reads.] 'In your opinion, who is the greateſt genius that France has ever produced?'

MAD. F. Ay,—What does he ſay to that?

MAR. [Reads.] 'Science would decide for D'Alembert, and Nature ſay, Buffon; Wit and Taſte preſent Voltaire; and Sentiment pleads for Rouſſeau; but Genius and Humanity cry out for Del'Epée; and him I call the beſt and greateſt of all human creatures.'

[Marianne drops the paper, and retires to a chair in tears.]

[Theodore throws himſelf into Del'Epée's arms. M. Franval and Franval look at each other in aſtoniſhment.]

DEL'E. [with an emotion which he ſtrives to repreſs.] You muſt excuſe him; —'tis a great miſtake;—but a very, very pardonable one.

FRAN. [Takes up the paper, and examines it] I can hardly credit what I ſee.

MAD. F. What do you think of this Darlemont now?

[Theodore and Madame Franval go to Marianne.]

FRAN. This deciſion diſcovers an extent of acquirements, and ſhows a purity of taſte, that—[To Del'Epée] What ſtudy, what pains, muſt it have coſt you to accompliſh ſuch effects.

DEL'E. To tell you what it has coſt me, were impoſſible: but the bare thought of prompting to the forgetfulneſs of nature,—of calling forth the faculties of mind,—this one perſuaſion gives ſtrength, courage, and perſeverance to accompliſh miracles. If the laborious huſbandman, when he views rich harveſts waving over the lands he has fertilized, experiences a pleaſure proportioned to his toils,—judge what are my ſenſations, when, ſurrounded by my pupils, I watch them gradually emerging from the night that overſhadows them, and ſee them dazzled at the widening dawn of opening Deity, 'till the full blaze of perfect intellect informs their ſouls to hope and adoration.—This is to new-create our brethren.—What tranſport to bring man acquainted with himſelf!—Enjoyments, I own, there may be, more ſplendid, more alluring;—but I am ſure, that, in the wide round of our capacities, none will be found more true.

FRAN. They're but the juſt reward of ſuch benevolence.

The intereſt is admirably preſerved in the ſubſequent obſtinacy and pride of Darlemont—his renouncing his right to Julio's eſtates, and the union of St. Alme and Franval.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

A HYMN.

By the Rev. RICHARD DE COURCY, of Shrewſbury.

GREAT GOD, we own thy ſway,
All nature's works obey
Thy dread command;—
'Mid the loud din of war,
'Mid low'ring clouds from far,
May Chriſt th' auſpicious ſtar
Shine on our land!

From thy benignant ſmile
On Britain's favour'd Iſle,
All our hopes ſpring;
With thy beſt gifts careſs,
With thy ſalvation bleſs,
Crown with thy righteouſneſs,
God ſave the King.

In this ſad hour of need,
When we thy judgments dread,
Deliv'rance bring,
To Thee alone we fly,
On thy great arm rely,
With trembling hope we cry,
God ſave the King.

From our lov'd Sov'reign's brow
Ward off death's fatal blow,
Shield from its ſting;
From every foe defend,
Life's healing balm extend
To Britain's father, friend,
God ſave the King.

To Thee we lift our eyes,
And, with a nation's cries,
Our homage bring;
Raiſe from the bed of pain,
Reſtore to health again,
Prolong his gracious reign,
Long live the King.

Spare him, Almighty Lord,
To ſheathe war's waſting ſword;
Bid diſcord ceaſe,
Bid faction's ſtorms ſubſide,
Stop ſin's impetuous tide,
Crown all thy gifts beſide
With laſting peace.

Then when we're call'd once more
That healing hand t' adore,
Which ſhook the rod;
Of Britain's peace we'll ſing,
Of health to Britain's king,
But our beſt off'rings bring
To Britain's God.

March 10.

STANZAS.

By the Rev. W. COLLIER.

IF genial ſuns, or fragrant glooms can pleaſe,
Haſte, mount the veſſel, guide the flying ſail;
Where coral rocks beſtud the ſouthern ſeas,
Point the bold prow, and catch the balmy gale!

Where with bright green primeval foreſts glow,
Where the high arch of glittering mountains bends,
And Nature, in the 'broider'd vales below,
Unſtain'd by art, her peaceful children tends.
Such, Otaheite! ſuch thy golden clime,
Thy blue horizon, and thy laughing ſkies;
So rove thy ſons beneath their palms ſublime,
That, in ſtill air, unmov'd, majeſtic riſe.
Happy! for them the cool banana's ſhade
Its ample roof, and cluſtering fruit beſtows,
For them the cocoa lifts its ſpiry head,
In whoſe full cups a guiltleſs vintage glows.
Ah bowers of bliſs! where oft the glancing ſun
Has view'd the ſportive theft, the pleaſing wile;
And the clear ſtreams, that gently-murmuring run,
Heard many a vow, reflected many a ſmile.
Sweet, in your ſhades to ſlumber life away;
Mark the blue her'n ſtalk ſtately round the cove;
Admire the various gleams of plumage gay;
Or ſoften at the tale of artleſs love:
To note the ſkilful diver ſmooth deſcend
In the calm boſom of the glaſſy deep;
Their flexile limbs the feathery dancers bend;
Or near ſome lone *morai* the mourner weep!
Iſles of delight! retreats from toiling thought!
How ſweet, to lay the weary frame along,
And (what the melancholy Cowley ſought!)
Pour in ſuch glens ſome tender ſerious ſong.
And is this all?—for this was being giv'n—
To glades, and glooms, and ſolitudes to run?
For this hath man receiv'd the ſeal of Heaven—
To ſigh in ſhades, or batten in the ſun?
For this (O dead to Virtue, Genius, Fame!)
The poliſh'd walks of ſocial life reſign'd?
Quench'd the deep bluſhes of indignant ſhame?
Each energy, that wakes the manly mind?
Renounc'd each meed of honourable toil?
Each youthful hope, that keeps the life-blood warm,
Of fortune's prize, of learning's favouring ſmile,
Of partial friendſhip's more prevailing charm.
Far, my lov'd country, from thy proud embrace,
From every form of great, or good, or fair,
On ſome rude iſland's ſilent marge to pace,
And, like the pebbly current, murmur there?
In other zones may fairer ſpring rejoice,
And other autumns bluſh with livelier ſtain:
In Europe, ſcience heavenward lifts her voice,
In Europe, Empire, Arts and Freedom reign.
Though Hafez ſing of ſummer-breathing bowers,
Of founts, whoſe boſom drinks the Perſian beam—
Theſe tempt not him, who counts his baniſh'd hours,
Sad exile, panting for his native ſtream.

SONG TO ROSALBA.

[By the Same.]

IN vain would love bewail the pow'r,
Of abſence, with repeated ſigh—
Fancy can cheer the loneſome hour,
And make me think Roſalba nigh.

In vain would abſence interpoſe
Its bar to ſtop the balmy kiſs—
With tranſport ſtill remembrance glows,
And gives again th' exſtatic bliſs.

In vain remembrance, now ſevere
Would weep for joys too bright to laſt—
Hope ſays, and wipes away the tear,
The future ſhall exceed the paſt.

In vain would hope, impatient grown,
The reins to doubt and terror yield—
Unſhaken truſt aſcends her throne,
And bids hope reſt behind her ſhield.

By truſt ſecure, now rapture, fir'd,
Diſplays aloft her glitt'ring wings,
And Agathon, by love inſpir'd,
Thus to his beſt Roſalba ſings.

EPILOGUE to DEAF and DUMB, or the ORPHAN PROTECTED.

Written by GEORGE COLMAN, Eſq.

Spoken by Miſs DE CAMP.

HERE's *Dumby* come to ſpeak—'twas ten to one
That I had talk'd before the play was done.

Of all our authors, he is far moſt cunning
Who can enſure a woman's tongue from running.
Speech is our nature;—if I err, convict me—
What *bachelor* ſo rude to contradict me?
Talking's our charter;—more than life we prize it;
I'm ſure no *married gentleman* denies it.
Speech is our birth-right—aſk the ladies whether:—
They'll all maintain it—and all talk together.
The woman who cried pippins on the ice
Fell in, and cut her head off in a trice;
Her head ſlid on, ſtill jealous of its power,
And bawl'd out 'Pip, pip, pip,' for half an hour.
Our charter prov'd, in my own right I come
To aſk you how you like *The Deaf and Dumb?*
—Be not too noiſy, gentlemen!—Why need you?
—Our charter!—Women's voices ſuperſede you.
Pray, ladies, tell them what they ought to ſay!
You ſmile!—I thank you!—And ſo ſpeed our play!—
One *dumby* in our piece 'twas bold to try—
Strike not the talkers, all, as dumb as I!
If here to-night our efforts be rejected,
For the firſt time, an *orphan's unprotected.*
If to the ſummit of our wiſh we reach,
Then, unlike women, gratitude wants ſpeech.

AIR written by M. G. LEWIS, Eſq.
Compoſed by Mr. KELLY.
Sung by Mrs. MOUNTAIN,
IN DEAF AND DUMB, OR THE ORPHAN PROTECTED.

WHAT, tho' fate forbids me offer
Golden gifts from fortune's ſtore;
All I have to love I proffer,
Fortune cannot offer more.

What, tho' bright the jewell'd treaſure,
Which Peruvian mines ſupply;
Brighter ſtill the tear of pleaſure,
Sparkling in affection's eye.

Hymen, in his power for ever,
Firm the God of hearts would hold;
Binding oft—ah, vain endeavour!
Love with intereſt's chain of gold.

Soon their weight his ſtrength o'erpowers;
Soon they cruſh the petty elf;
Love can bear no chains but flowers,
Light, and blooming like himſelf.

STATE PAPERS.

Note preſented by Lord Carysfort, on the 1ſt of February, to his Excellency the State and Cabinet Miniſter, Count Haugwitz.

'THE underſigned ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic majeſty, has the honour to addreſs himſelf to count Haugwitz, by command of his court, in order to communicate to him the following particulars:

'The ſpirit of patience and of moderation which prevails in the note of lord Grenville to count Koſtopſhin, will not eſcape the notice of his excellency.

'A ſolemn treaty between the two powers had given the reſpective ſubjects of each a complete ſecurity for the proſecution of their trade, and even in caſe of a rupture it had been agreed, that not only no embargo ſhould be laid, but that the ſubjects on both ſides ſhould have a whole year to carry away their effects, and to arrange their affairs in the country.

'Notwithſtanding theſe ſacred ſtipulations, the ſhips of Britiſh ſubjects in the Ruſſian ports are detained, and their property, in an extraordinary manner, upon various pretexts, ſequeſtrated or ſold. Their perſons are likewiſe put under arreſt, and a number of Britiſh ſailors have been forcibly taken out of their ſhips, and been ſent under guard, and in the midſt of winter, into the interior of the country.

'In conſequence of theſe new acts of violence, lord Grenville, ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, received his majeſty's order to addreſs a ſecond note to count Koſtopſhin, in which his majeſty ſtated his having appointed a commiſſary to ſuperintend the ſafety and the wants of his unfortunate ſubjects, a circumſtance which is uſual even among the powers that are actually at war. Lord Grenville in that paper likewiſe formally inſiſted on the execution of the treaty of 1793. But, though he made the ſtrong and juſt remonſtrances which ſuch circumſtances demanded, yet his majeſty's conſtant diſpoſition again to reſtore the former connection and good underſtanding between the two crowns has been in vain.

'His Britannic majeſty anticipates the ſentiments which the king of Pruſſia will entertain when he is informed of the un-

heard of and unjuſtifiable manner in which his Britannic majeſty's remonſtrances were heard by the court of St. Peterſbourgh. The note of count Koſtopſhin to lord Grenville, of the 20th December, O. S. a copy of which the underſigned is ordered to communicate to count Haugwitz, will enable his Pruſſian majeſty to judge whether the underſigned is called upon to make any obſervations upon it.

'The underſigned has received orders to make known to the court of Berlin that this conduct, on the part of the emperor of Ruſſia, has put an end to all correſpondence between the courts of London and St. Peterſburgh; and the connection between the extraordinary violence committed upon the perſon and property of his majeſty's ſubjects, and with the concluſion of a hoſtile confederacy which the emperor of Ruſſia has formed, for the expreſs and avowed purpoſe of introducing thoſe innovations into the maritime code which his Britannic majeſty has ever oppoſed, has at length produced a ſtate of open war between Great Britain and Ireland and Ruſſia.

'It will not be uſeleſs to remark, that the emperor of Ruſſia, at the preſent criſis, cannot be conſidered as a neutral power, becauſe he was at war with Great Britain before he himſelf was at peace with France.

'The underſigned ſhall have done juſtice to the charge with which he is entruſted, when he declares in the name of the king, his maſter, that his majeſty, on weighing the preſent circumſtances of Europe, is willing to forbear demanding from the court of Pruſſia that ſuccour which was ſtipulated by treaty, though he conſiders the *caſus fœderis* as completely coming within thoſe circumſtances in which they ſtand; and that his Britannic majeſty cannot doubt but that he will receive from his ally all the proofs of friendſhip which the events of this new war would have required.

'The underſigned has the honour, &c.

(Signed) CARYSFORT.

Note tranſmitted by the Pruſſian Miniſter, Count Haugwitz, to Lord Carysfort, the Engliſh Ambaſſador at Berlin.

'THE underſigned, ſtate and cabinet miniſter, has laid before his Pruſſian majeſty the two notes which lord Carysfort, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary from his majeſty the king of Great Britain and Ireland, has done him the honour to tranſmit to him on the 27th of January and 1ſt of February laſt.

'The underſigned, having it in commiſſion to return an explicit and circumſtantial anſwer, is under the neceſſity of informing lord Carysfort, that his majeſty cannot ſee, without the utmoſt grief and concern, the violent and haſty meaſures to which the court of London has proceeded againſt the northern naval powers. Error alone can have given occaſion to theſe meaſures, as the aſſertions in the note of the 26th ſufficiently ſhew. In that it is ſaid, that the maritime alliance 'has for its object to annul the treaties formerly concluded with England, and to preſcribe laws to her with reſpect to the principles of them; that the neutrality is only a pretext to impoſe thoſe laws on her by force, and to eſtabliſh a hoſtile alliance againſt her.'

'Nothing, however, is farther from the above-mentioned negociation than the principles here ſuppoſed. It is founded in juſtice and moderation, and the communication of a copy of the convention to ſuch of the belligerent powers as had the juſtice and patience to wait for the ſame, will prove this beyond a poſſibility of a denial.

'When in the beginning of January the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty officially propoſed to the underſigned the queſtion—'Whether the northern courts had actually concluded the confederation which had been reported; and whether Pruſſia had acceded to it?'—the king conceived that the reſpect which ſovereigns owe to each other, and the liberty poſſeſſed by every independent ſtate to conſult its own intereſts, without rendering an account to any other power, authorized him to withhold any comunications relative to himſelf and his allies, and contented himſelf with anſwering, that as he had ſeen, without interfering, the connections which England had entered into without conſulting him, he conſidered himſelf as entitled to the ſame confidence; and that if the king of Great Britain thought it his duty to ſupport the rights and intereſts of his kingdom, his Pruſſian majeſty conſidered it as not leſs his duty to employ every means in the defence of the rights and intereſts of his ſubjects.

'This anſwer might have ſufficed a few weeks ſince: but in the ſituation in which affairs now are, the king thinks himſelf called upon to make an explicit declaration to the court of London, relative to the ſpirit of the treaty, which has probably been attacked becauſe it was not known, and which, far from having the offenſive views of which the contracting parties have been

arbitrarily accuſed. They have expreſsly agreed that their meaſures ſhall be neither hoſtile, nor tend to the detriment of any country, but only have for their object the ſecurity of the trade and navigation of their ſubjects. They have been attentive to adapt their new connections to preſent circumſtances.

'The ſtrict juſtice of his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia has, even in the detail, propoſed modifications which alone might be ſufficient to indicate the ſpirit of the whole. It has ſince been determined that the treaty ſhall not be prejudicial to thoſe treaties which had been before concluded with any of the belligerent powers. It was alſo reſolved that this determination ſhould be candidly communicated to theſe powers, to prove the purity of the motives and views of the contracting parties. But England would not allow them time for this. Had ſhe waited this confidential communication, ſhe might have avoided theſe intemperate meaſures which threaten to ſpread ſtill wider the flames of war. She might likewiſe have received ſatisfaction from the correſpondence with Denmark, if, inſtead of dwelling on two detached paſſages, copied in the firſt note of lord Caryſfort from the note of count Bernſtorff of the 31ſt of December, the court of London had attended to the ſolemn declaration, that 'it could never be for a moment imagined, that Denmark entertained any hoſtile projects againſt Great Britain, or ſuch as were inconſiſtent with the maintenance of a good underſtanding between the two powers; and that the court of Denmark congratulated itſelf, on having obtained an opportunity to contradict ſuch unfounded reports in the moſt poſitive manner.

'This open and explicit declaration accorded with the aſſurances which the underſigned had more than once given to lord Carysfort on the ſame ſubject; and it is difficult to conceive, how theEngliſh court could conclude, as it afterward appeared that it did, from the note of the Daniſh miniſter, 'that the convention of the contracting powers went to eſtabliſh new principles of maritime law, which had never been acknowledged by the tribunals of Europe, and the object of which was hoſtile to England.'

'The concluſion is totally falſe, and as little authorized by the anſwer of the Daniſh conrt as the undeſerved accuſation, that it propoſed 'to excite a hoſtile confederacy againſt Great Britain, and with that view was employed in active reparations.

'Never were meaſures more inconteſtibly merely defenſive than thoſe of the court of Copenhagen; and the ſpirit of them will be leſs miſtaken, when it is recollected what menacing demonſtrations that court experienced on the part of the Britiſh government, in conſequence of the affair of the frigate Freya, before it adopted thoſe meaſures.

'The arbitrary conduct of England on this occaſion is naturally explained by the lofty pretenſions ſhe has ſo long advanced, and which have been ſeveral times renewed in the notes of lord Carysfort, at the expence of all the maritime and commercial powers. The Britiſh government has, in the preſent, more than in any former war, aſſumed to itſelf the ſovereignty of the ſea, and has arbitrarily formed a maritime code, which it is extremely difficult to reconcile with the true principles of the law of nations: it exerciſes over friendly and neutral powers an uſurped juriſdiction, which it maintains to be juſt, and endeavours to repreſent as an indefeaſible law ſanctioned byall the tribunals of Europe.

'Never have the ſovereigns of England permitted their ſubjects to be made amenable to this law in the numerous caſes when the abuſe of power has tranſgreſſed the limits of juſtice. The neutral powers have made the ſtrongeſt remonſtrances and proteſtations; but experience has ſhewn, that theſe are generally without effect. It is not therefore ſurpriſing, that, after ſo many and repeated injuries, they ſhould have had recourſe to a meaſure which may prevent them in future, and with that view have entered into a well concerted alliance, which may define their rights, and place them in a proper relation to the belligerent powers.

'The maritime alliance, as it has been conſolidated, will lead to this ſalutary object, and the king makes no difficulty to declare to his Britannic majeſty, that he has found in it his own principles, that he is intimately convinced of its neceſſity and utility, and that he has formally acceded to the convention which was concluded between the courts of Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, on the 16th of December laſt: his majeſty is therefore among the number of the contracting powers, and, as ſuch, is obliged not only to take a direct part in all events which may intereſt the affairs of the neutral ſtates, but is bound to ſupport that convention by ſuch vigorous meaſures as the courſe of circumſtances may require.

'The note of lord Carysfort refers to a

ſubject relative to which his majeſty conceives he is not obliged to anſwer, nor even has a right to form an opinion; diſputes exiſt between the courts of London and Peterſburgh which in no manner have connection with that which the above-mentioned miniſter has endeavoured to unite them. But as much as the conduct of Pruſſia has been hitherto guided by the moſt unexceptionable impartiality, it will be equally guided by a reſpect for the alliances which are a proof of it. Stipulations which contain in themſelves nothing hoſtile, and which the ſecurity of his ſubjects preſcribed to him, bind him to have recourſe to all the means which Providence has placed in his power.

'As unpleaſant as the extremities are to which England had proceeded, the king entertains no doubt of the poſſibility of a ſpeedy return to conciliatory and pacific diſpoſitions; and in this reſpect confides in the ſentiments of juſtice which he has often had the happineſs to experience on other occaſions from his Britannic majeſty.

'*Only by the recal and entire taking off of the embargo* can things be reſtored to their former ſtate; and England muſt judge whether ſhe will conſent to afford the neutral powers this means of proceeding to the overtures which they are ready to make. But as long as thoſe meaſures ſhall continue, which were adopted from hatred to a common principle, and againſt an alliance no longer to be feared, the hoſtile determination which muſt be the conſequence, will be the neceſſary reſult of the treaty, and the underſigned has it in command to declare to the miniſter of his Britannic majeſty, that the king, while he teſtifies his concern at the circumſtances that have occurred, and which he has never occaſioned, will fulfil, in the moſt ſacred manner, the obligations impoſed on him by treaties.

'The underſigned, while he executes this command, has the honour to aſſure lord Carysfort of his high eſteem.

(Signed) 'HAUGWITZ.

Berlin, Feb. 12.

LAW REPORT.

CARY *verſus* LONGMAN and ANOTHER.

MR. Erſkine ſtated, that the plaintiff, Mr. Cary, is an engraver and mapſeller in the Strand, and carries on a very extenſive buſineſs; Meſſrs. Longman and Rees are bookſellers in Paternoſter-row; they were only nominal defendants in this caſe; the real defendant being Francis Newbery, eſq. of St. Paul's church-yard, who was undoubtedly a very reſpectable man, and known to all of them. The diſpute between the parties reſpected Paterſon's 12th edition of his Book of the Roads of England and Wales.—The jury had here two queſtions to decide. 1ſt, Whether the plaintiff had a copy-right in his book? and 2dly, If he had, whether the defendant had pirated it. This action went on the ground that the plaintiff had that right, and the defendant had infringed it, and was, therefore, called upon to make ſatisfaction.

The firſt witneſs called, was Mr. Thomas Haſker, ſuperintendant of the mail coaches, who gave in evidence, his having received orders, in the year 1794, from lord Walſingham (then one of the poſtmaſters general) to engage the plaintiff to make an accurate ſurvey of the different roads throughout the kingdom. The agreement was, that he ſhould receive for his trouble nine pence per mile, and which, as it appeared by his teſtimony, was no more than what Mr. Cary actually paid the people he employed, and was ſo underſtood by his lordſhip; but as a remuneration for his trouble, it was a condition of his contract, that he ſhould have the excluſive right of publiſhing the ſurvey, (which was ſtated to be upward of 9000 miles) and to dedicate it, by permiſſion, to the poſtmaſter-general, and further, to render his work as perfect as poſſible, it was ſtipulated, that Mr. Cary ſhould have official aſſiſtance for the completing his book.

The witneſs was alſo queſtioned generally as to Paterſon's 12th edition being a copy of Cary's Itinerary, and whether the plaintiff's could be conſidered a copy of the defendant's 11th edition, he pointed out many inſtances to ſhow that Paterſon had copied Cary; and gave it as his opinion, that Cary had not made uſe of Paterſon's 11th edition, in the compilation of his work, and ſhowed its great ſuperiority over every other work of the kind.

Mr. Charles Bonner (late deputy comptroller of the poſt-office) was next called, who pointed out the advantages of Cary's publication; ſaid, he had compared his work againſt Paterſon's 11th edition, and found the ſtructure of them perfectly different.

Old Paterſon, or the 11th edition, had two features, viz. 1ſt, To arrange the places through which the road paſſes, with-

out regarding any intermediate objects; and 2dly, To join at the end of each route a ſelection of ſeats, &c.

The plaintiff's have, 1ſt, The names of places through which the roads paſs; 2dly, All turnpike-roads branching off, and to where they lead; 3d, Exact ſituation of turnpikes; 4th, The preciſe point of diſtance he meaſures to and from each place; 5th, The inns on each route which ſupply poſt-horſes and carriages; 6th, An arrangement of ſeats at the end of each route; 7th, A valuable compilation of facts reſpecting the packets, and moſt extenſive indexes to both, direct and croſs roads, &c. all of which the defendant had copied in his 12th edition, and that no doubt could be entertained of its being a direct piracy of Cary.

Mr. Hare, one of the compoſitors, who was employed by Mr. Cox in ſetting up for the preſs the 12th edition of Paterſon, depoſed, that he took it from the copy given to him. Pieces were cut out of Mr. Cary's book, and laid before him, with ſome intervening manuſcript. The printed copy from Cary's Itinerary was much greater than the manuſcript. When the witneſs was aſked, what he thought the proportion was between them, he replied, that, in his judgment, he had ten times as much print as manuſcript; and as far as it was print he followed it *verbatim*; and he was deſired to put that part of the print which was in Italics, in Roman: when he had finiſhed it, he returned it again to Mr. Cox and the overſeer; there were whole pages of entire print from Cary; there was a column cut out, and they ſubſtituted fractional parts for furlongs; for inſtance, by calling 5 furlongs 5 eights of a mile, &c.

Mr. Hebert, one of the ſurveyors, was examined, to prove the manner of the ſurvey being made, and depoſed, that the price given him was 9d per mile; his method of meaſuring was by a perambulator, and the orders he received from the plaintiff were to aſcertain the whole of the turnings, branching, or running out of the road he was ſurveying, and to note every object of the ſmalleſt importance, or that could be of uſe to the traveller, and the exact diſtance of one ſtationary object from the other, wherever it could be in any degree uſeful, and to inform himſelf, as he proceeded, of the name of the reſident of the different ſeats which came within his obſervation, as well as any other matter deſerving notice.

Mr. Gibbs obſerved, that the plaintiff, who now ſought to recover damages, had been in the court of chancery on this very buſineſs; had filed a bill in equity againſt the perſons who had publiſhed this work, for a diſcovery and an injunction, which bill was diſmiſſed with coſts, on the ground that Mr. Cary was not entitled to what he aſked for, and he might think himſelf very well off, that Mr. Newbery did not ſeek to recover of him thoſe damages which he ſought to recover from Mr. Newbery. The learned counſel hoped, that after the jury had heard all the evidence in this caſe, it would have the ſame fate it had on the other ſide of the hall. The learned counſel, after a very ingenious ſpeech, ſaid, he had ſtated the circumſtances of this caſe fairly and correctly, according to his inſtructions, and from what appeared from the books themſelves.

Lord Kenyon ſaid, he entertained no doubt, that he had ſtated every thing moſt correctly, and had made the beſt of his materials.

His lordſhip ſaid, it was not neceſſary that the perſon who brought an action of this ſort ſhould have the whole property in the work: nobody doubted; that Dr. Samuel Clarke had a copy right in the notes he wrote upon Homer, and Dr. Bentley had a property in his notes upon Horace.

Mr. Erſkine obſerved, he was certain that the noble lord, who preſided at the other ſide of the hall, if he had heard the evidence that had been given that day, would have entertained a different opinion on this ſubject. That learned perſon, who was now about to retire from public life, was, unqueſtionably, poſſeſſed of great abilities, great genius, and great learning.

The counſel wiſhed to know what damages the plaintiff had ſuſtained.

Lord Kenyon ſaid, he thought, after what had paſſed at the court of chancery, nominal damages would ſatisfy the juſtice of the caſe.

Verdict for the plaintiff *One Shilling*.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

MARCH 6.

ON Sunday laſt accounts were received in town [Calcutta] of the capture of the hon. company's ſhip Kent, capt. Rivington, after an engagement of conſiderable duration with the Confiance, capt. Surcouff, off the Sand Heads.

On Tueſday morning the 7th inſt. at

day-light, a ſtrange ſail was diſcovered in the N.W. quarter; the Kent at that time was lying to for a pilot, and capt. Rivington, conceiving the veſſel in ſight to be a pilot ſchooner, immediately bore down, hoiſted his colours, and made the ſignal for a pilot. The ſtranger, upon this, made ſail, and hauled up toward the Kent. It was ſoon after diſcovered that ſhe was a ſhip; the hands were immediately called to quarters, and the ſhip immediately prepared for action: upon her approach to the Kent, as ſhe ſhowed no colours, a ſhot was fired at her from the larboard ſide, which was followed up, as ſhe paſſed upon the oppoſite tack, by a broadſide, and a conſtant fire kept up while ſhe was within reach of the guns. The privateer, for it was now aſcertained to be ſo, ſoon afterward tacked, came up on the larboard ſide, and commenced the engagement within about muſket-ſhot, but without doing injury, although ſhe continued in this poſition for ſome time: ſhe then ſhot a-head, and paſſing round the bow of the Kent, renewed the engagement on the other ſide, nearly at the ſame diſtance, and for the ſame length of time, but with as little effect as before. She afterward made ſail a-head, as if with the intention of relinquiſhing the attack, and making off, which ſhe could eaſily have done, having greatly the ſuperiority in ſailing; when ſhe had got about the diſtance of half a mile a-head of the Kent, ſhe was, however, obſerved to haul her main-ſail up, and wear round immediately toward her, and in about 10 or 15 minutes afterward, or as ſoon as her guns would bear, ſhe, for the firſt time, hoiſted the National colours (Surcouff afterward declared that he had forgot them before), and fired a broadſide and a volley of muſketry from every part of the ſhip, which was immediately returned by the Kent, and continued while her guns would bear; the privateer then wearing round her ſtern, ranged cloſe up alongſide, and received a full diſcharge from the Kent's ſtarboard guns. At this moment ſhe fired a whole broadſide, and threw a number of hand grenades from her tops into the Kent, ſome of which penetrated the upper-deck, and burſt on the gun-deck; at the ſame time a fire of muſketry was kept up from her tops, which killed and wounded a number of the paſſengers and recruits that were on the quarter deck and poop. When the ſhips were completely locked with each other, capt. Surcouff entered, at the head of about 150 men, completely armed for boarding, having each a ſabre and a brace of piſtols. The conteſt upon deck was now deſperate, and laſted for about twenty minutes; but the enemy, having greatly the ſuperiority, both in numbers and arms, were victorious, and a dreadful carnage enſued, they ſhowing no quarter to any one who came in their way, whether with or without arms; and ſuch was their ſavage cruelty, that they even ſtabbed ſome of the ſick in bed.

Upon gaining poſſeſſion of the poop, the French immediately cut down the colours, and ſoon after this had complete poſſeſſion of the ſhip.

Capt. Surcouff, finding ſome diſinclination in his crew to board, had been under the neceſſity of plying them ſeveral times with liquor, as well as to promiſe them an hour's pillage, in the event of carrying the ſhip; and this time they completely occupied, breaking open every package they could come come at, and even taking the coats, hats, ſhoes, &c. from the perſons of the officers and paſſengers.

From the commencement of the action until the French were in poſſeſſion of the ſhip was about an hour and forty-ſeven minutes; and from the gallant manner in which the officers and crew of the Kent behaved while the ſhips were clear of each other, there is not a doubt but ſhe would have overcome the privateer; but there being a very great deficiency of ſmall arms, they had no means of repelling ſuch a number of boarders, ſo well prepared for cloſe action; and capt. Surcouff acknowledged that, had he not ſucceeded in carrying her, his own ſhip muſt ſoon have ſunk alongſide.

It is with extreme regret we add, that captain Rivington, after the moſt manly conduct in the defence of his ſhip, fell by the muſketry from the tops of the privateer, while Surcouff was in the act of boarding her.

In the afternoon, the officers, paſſengers, and crew of the Kent, were ſent on board an Arab veſſel, which hove in ſight, and which had been plundered by the privateer the day before;—ſome of the ſeamen were detained on board the privateer, and put in irons, with the hopes of inducing them to enter. The chief officer, ſurgeon, and ſurgeon's mate, with about thirteen of the moſt dangerouſly wounded, were detained on board the Kent, under pretence of its requiring too much time to remove them.

Although the prize-maſter informed the

unfortunate people who were ſent on board the Arab, and there was abundance of proviſions and water, yet upon enquiry there was found only a very ſmall quantity of rain water, ſcarcely equal to half a pint each man per day, for four days, with a few dates and raw rice to ſubſiſt on, and they were conſequently reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs, before they were relieved by one pilot ſchooner, which they met in the roads.

Liſt of officers, ſeamen, paſſengers, and troops, killed and wounded, on board the Hon. Company's ſhip Kent, in action with La Confiance, French privateer, off the Sand Heads, in the bay of Bengal, 7th of October, in 25 fathoms water.

[Publiſhed by order of government.]

Killed.—Robert Rivington, eſq. commander; Mr. J. Findlay, carpenter; Mr. Wm. Bazeley, boatſwain's mate; Mr. W. Cator, free merchant, Bengal; Mr. T. H. Graham, writer, ditto; Mr. R. Moor, cadet, Madras: Mr. Alex. Pentland, ditto, ditto; corporal Wally, H. M. 10th reg. foot; T. Cooper, 76th ditto; S. Cole, 27th light dragoons; J. Davies, 25th ditto; J. Pickering, 29th ditto; and J. Mullagen, Hon. Company's recruit.

Dangerouſly wounded, and could not be removed from the Kent.—Serj. Obrien, H. M. 10th reg. foot; ſerj. M'Cullum, 29th light dragoons; P. Lucas, A. Crowdall, Francis Fletcher, Henry Magnaſs, 76th light dragoons; J. Floyd, 25th ditto; E. Ford, private, 76th foot; Mr. J. Puller, writer, Bengal; Mr. Benj. Tichburn, cadet, Madras; Mr. R. Sherwood, aſſiſtant ſurgeon, ditto; and John Cooper, Henry Bransley, and Cornelius Zaden, ſeamen.

Wounded dangerouſly.—Enſign Palmer, H. M. 10th reg. foot; enſign Byne, 76th ditto; Mr. R. Youl, third officer; and Mr. J. Tween, fourth ditto.

Severely wounded.—Capt. Pilkington, aid-de-camp to the hon. gen. St. John.

Wounded.—William Karr, ſeaman; Mr. J. Ewer, (ſlightly) writer, Bengal; Mr. John Warner, cadet; Mr. H. Gibſon, aſſiſtant ſurgeon; Mr. Charles Gahagan, Mr. Charles Mitchell, and Mr. L. S. Smith, cadets, Madras; corporal Finegan, H. M. 29th dragoons; corporal Spicer, John Healing, John Seawood, and W. Potts, 76th regiment of foot; W. Colliers and Henry Perry, 27th light dragoons; Samuel Daniels and Richard Gillings, 10th reg. foot; G. Wright, 29th light dragoons: and J. Griffiths, Henry Hayding, John Gamerith, Andrew O'Neal, John Stafford, and William Dickſon, Hon. Company's recruits.

Abſtract - -	13 killed.
	42 wounded.
Total killed and wounded	55

MARCH 7.

The ſtate priſoners, who have for a conſiderable time paſt been confined in the tower, the houſe of correction in Cold-bath fields, Tothill-fields Bridewell, Shrewſbury, and other county gaols, were on Tueſday brought up to the duke of Portland's office, when moſt of them were liberated on their own recognizance. Among theſe were lord Cloncurry, Mr. Bonham, and colonel Deſpard. One or two refractory perſons refuſed to enter into bail, inſiſted upon an unconditional releaſe, and were of courſe remanded. Such of them as had been brought from the country were allowed five pounds each to defray the expences of the journey home, and the whole were treated with the utmoſt civility and attention. This is a proceeding altogether voluntary on the part of government, the Habeas Corpus act being ſtill in a ſtate of ſuſpenſion.

The ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act paſſed by the laſt parliament, was, by the act, directed to continue for ſix weeks from the 1ſt of February laſt.

MARCH 10.

At Wincheſter aſſizes, which commenced on Monday before Mr. Baron Thompſon and Mr. Juſtice Le Blanc, came on the trial of lieut. Stapleton, of the 20th regiment, charged with the wilful murder of enſign Grainger, in a duel. The trial occupied the attention of the court for near eight hours, when, after an excellent ſumming up by the learned judge, the jury retired for a ſhort time, and on their return pronounced a verdict of Manſlaughter. Colonel and major Stapleton were examined on behalf of their brother: the latter burſt into tears, which, for a while, affected Mr. Stapleton, but he ſoon reſumed his firm and collected deportment, and waited with ſteady reſignation the deciſion of the jury. Mr. S. is apparently about 30 years of age, and very perſonable. The verdict was received with a general clapping of hands by a very crowded court.

MARCH 12.

We have now to congratulate the public upon the final recovery of his majeſty from his late ſerious indiſpoſition, an event which we have the happineſs of announcing upon the authority of his majeſty's

phyſicians, whoſe report of yeſterday is the laſt that is thought neceſſary to be publiſhed.

BULLETIN.

'Queen's Houſe, March 11.

'His majeſty is free from fever, and ſeems only to require the time, always neceſſary after ſo ſevere an illneſs, for the recovery of his uſual health and ſtrength.

(Signed) 'T. GISBORNE.

'H. R. REYNOLDS.'

MARCH 14.

A Female Swindler, who reſided lately at Blackheath, has had the addreſs to defraud various tradeſmen of property to the amount of 20,000l, and upward: the following are the particulars of the whole tranſaction. This impoſtor had a boarding ſchool on Coome-hill two years, during which time ſhe kept her carriage, and repreſented herſelf as heireſs to ſeveral large eſtates, particularly to that of an uncle in Scotland, on whoſe demiſe ſhe ſhould come into poſſeſſion of 100,000l. Under the impreſſion of theſe high ſounding appearances, ſhe aſſumed all the conſequence attached to her birth, fortune, and expectations; and, from the manner of addreſs, and the lofty ſtile which ſhe aſſumed, the people in the neighbourhood of Blackheath and Greenwich really believed every thing ſhe thought proper to advance. In May laſt, ſhe ſent to Mr. Creaſy, of Greenwich, a man of property, by trade a currier, whom ſhe informed that her uncle, Alexander Stewart Robertſon, of Faſcally, was dead, and begged that he would accompany her to a reſpectable attorney in Crane court, Fleet-ſtreet, to arrange matters preparatory to her taking poſſeſſion. Mr. Creaſy complied, and went with her to the gentleman's houſe in queſtion; miſs Robertſon in ſtating the buſineſs to the attorney, deſired he would make out a factory (the uſual proceſs for conveying Scotch property) for 1600l a year on the eſtate of her late uncle, Alexander Stuart Robertſon, of Faſcally, and a bond for 5000l, to be drawn on the agent who had the ſuperintendance of the eſtate, and who ſhe ſaid had been appointed to receive her rents. A few days after this tranſaction, ſhe again ſent to Mr. Creaſy, and knowing him to be a man of property, aſked him to lend her 2000l, until the ſettlement of her affairs at Faſcally. Mr. Creaſy not having the ſlighteſt ſuſpicion of any part of what had been advanced being untrue, readily complied. Deſirous of an elegant houſe, ſhe fixed upon a very handſome one in the Paragon, which was in an unfiniſhed ſtate; this houſe ſhe purchaſed on credit; and engaged bricklayers, carpenters, and painters, to finiſh the premiſes in the moſt expenſive ſtile imaginable; and ordered Mr. Driver, the nurſeryman, to ſpare no expence of planting the ſhrubberies, and improving the pleaſure-grounds. While theſe improvements were going forward, miſs Robertſon ſet up three carriages, a coach, ſociable, and poſt-chariot; and while the houſe and grounds were finiſhing, ſhe, and her ſiſter, miſs Sharp (who lived with her) continued at Croome-hill, from whence they made frequent excurſions to London; the latter end of June, they ſet off for Brighton, where they figured away with four horſes and outriders. The horſes they had on job from a ſtablekeeper at Greenwich, and the carriages from different coachmakers in London.

On her return in Auguſt laſt, miſs Robertſon went to Hatchett's, and deſired him to make her an elegant chariot, with ſilver mouldings, and raiſed coronets of the ſame. Mr. Hatchett treated his cuſtomer with much reſpect, and haſtened to complete the order by the time promiſed, the Queen's birth-day; her couſin, Mr. ſecretary Dundas, intending on that day to introduce her at court. About this time the houſe was finiſhed, but not furniſhed: having heard that Mr. Oakley, in Bond-ſtreet, was remarkable for the elegance of his ware-rooms, ſhe applied to him, through the medium of a man of reſpectability, at Blackheath, and, from the repreſentation made to Mr. Oakley, he agreed to furniſh the houſe for 4000l. Things then went on in a very flouriſhing way; the drawing-rooms were painted in water colours by one of the firſt artiſts in the kingdom; the walls in landſcape, and the ceiling compoſed of clouds and appropriate devices. The looking-glaſſes to the floor were in burniſhed gold frames, richly carved, with ſtatuary marble ſlabs, and on molu ornaments. Theſe ſix mirrors came to 1,100l. On the marble ſlabs in the principal drawing-room were placed a pair of Egyptian candelabras, the price of which was 200 guineas, the principal bed 500l, and every other article equally magnificent.

During the three months that the furniſhing of the houſe was going forward, Mr. Oakley had frequent conferences with his employer, miſs Robertſon, when ſhe frequently mentioned that ſhe had great expectations from rich relations in India,

and was continually receiving preſents of great value. Among the number lately arrived was a marble chimney-piece, then lying at the India-houſe, worth, in that country, 1,100l, and added, that it was her intention to build a room on purpoſe to erect it in, adapted for balls or muſic. Mr. Oakley, not being perfectly ſatisfied with appearances, requeſted, when half the order had been completed, the ſum of 1000l. Miſs Robertſon felt herſelf hurt, and ſaid, if he had any doubts of his having his money when her affairs were ſettled at Faſcally, he might apply to her ſiſter, lady Paget, or her couſin, the biſhop of London. 'If you have any further doubts (added miſs Robertſon) apply to ſir Richard Hill, who has known me from my infancy. Sir Edward Law (the preſent attorney-general) can ſpeak to my reſpectability.' From theſe bold aſſertions, Mr. Oakley proceeded with the order, but when nearly completed, he judged it proper to wait upon the biſhop of London and ſir Richard Hill; both thoſe gentlemen ſaid they had no farther knowledge of a miſs Robertſon than by a card, which a perſon of that name had been in the habit of leaving at the houſes of perſons of diſtinction.

Upon this diſcovery, in February laſt, Mr. Oakley took out a writ, and with proper officers, his own men, and ſeveral carts, went down to Blackheath, and laid in wait till nine o'clock (being informed that miſs Robertſon dined out) when the carriage came home, but no miſs Robertſon. From this circumſtance it appeared that ſhe had received information of what was going forward, and would not return. Mr. Oakley, finding that he could not take the body, contrived to get into the houſe, and let in his men, who diſrobed the manſion of its furniture by ſix o'clock the next morning, having worked hard all night. At nine o'clock in the morning came an execution, under virtue of which the remaining part of the property was ſold by auction on the premiſes.

No diſcovery has yet been made as to the place of reſidence of this ſwindler. The following perſons have been defrauded to a large amount:—At Greenwich, the carpenter of 1,400l, the bricklayer of 900l, the painter and glazier of 700l, the ſtable keeper, who lent the horſes of 300l. The nurſeryman, for lawns and pleaſure-grounds, of 400l, Mr. Clarke, of Fleet-ſtreet, ſilverſmith, a ſuperb ſideboard of plate. Meſſrs. Ord and Morris, and Mr. Pearce, of St. Paul's church-yard, are among the number defrauded. A milliner, in Bond-ſtreet, for, dreſſes and laces of 260l.

Miſs Robertſon in perſon is plain, much marked by the ſmallpox, about five feet two inches in height, inſinuating in her manner, and ſpeaks in an elevated tone of voice.

MARCH 16.

American papers, lately received, confirm the account, that the French treaty was ratified, with the exception of the 2d article, and limiting the duration of it to eight years. The number of votes were twenty-two to nine. Mr. Dexter was nominated by the preſident to go to France as commiſſioner, to negociate the matter in the form in which it is now put; but he declined the miſſion.

Letters from America, dated the 18th of February, have been received, containing intelligence of Mr. Jefferſon having been elected preſident of the United States, Mr. Burr is of courſe the vice preſident.

The election for the preſidency of the United States was carried on with the greateſt warmth.—The balloting was renewed thirty-one times during three ſucceſſive days. The thirty-ſecond time decided the election in favour of Mr. Jefferſon, ſome of Mr. Burr's friends having being perſuaded to give way.—Mr. Jefferſon had New-York, New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, and Tenneſee. Mr. Burr, New-Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, Rhode-Iſland, Delaware, South Carolina.—Vermont and Maryland were divided.—As ſoon as Mr. Jefferſon was declared preſident, a ſalute of ſixteen guns was fired from the battery at Waſhington.

A ſtatue, and not a mauſoleum, is now intended to be erected in memory of the illuſtrious general Waſhington.

MARCH 17.

At the Chelmsford aſſizes laſt week 118 priſoners were tried, 28 of whom received ſentence of death.

When Robert Jewell, for burglary, received ſentence, he addreſſed the court, and begged to be heard for a few minutes. He ſaid, he was a farmer's ſon, in Norfolk, and was decently educated. Until the age of 35, he led a virtuous and ſober life, fearing God and honouring the king, when he had the misfortune of becoming acquainted with perſons who were admirers of Paine's writings, which were put into his hands. He often read and conſidered them, and the plauſibility of the aſſertions

and arguments ſo far overpowered his reaſon, that he became a convert to Paine's doctrines, and conſidered the Scriptures as cunning fables, invented to impoſe upon and deceive the generality of mankind for the benefit of a few. Having married and become the father of a family, and the hardneſs of the times obliging him to work early and late, he took that courſe of life which had brought him to the gallows. He was under great obligations to the chaplain attending the priſon, for opening his eyes and convincing him of the dangerous tenets he had imbibed, and teaching him the true doctrines of Chriſtianity; he thanked God he was ſtopped ſhort in his wicked courſe, before he had committed the crime of murder, and hoped, through the merits of his Saviour, to be ſaved. But he did not deſpiſe life, and if mercy could be extended through the recommendation of his lordſhip, he would continue to pray to heaven for his gracious ſovereign, and endeavour again to be a uſeful and loyal ſubject; but if not, he would meet his fate with Chriſtian reſignation, humbly truſting in the mercy of God; and begging moſt earneſtly that his children might be taken care of.

Mr. Baron Hotham ſpoke to the priſoner in a humane and affecting manner, and concluded with telling him, that mercy here could not be extended to him, conſiſtent with the due adminiſtration of the law, and that he muſt prepare himſelf to meet that awful moment when he muſt appear before another tribunal, where ſincere repentance and contrition might induce him to hope to meet with that mercy which could not be extended to him in this world.

MARCH 18.

Yeſterday, being St. Patrick's-day, the anniverſary dinner of the benevolent ſociety of St. Patrick was held at the Freemaſons tavern. His royal highneſs the earl of Armagh, (duke of Cumberland) was in the chair, ſupported by lord Moira and lord Clare. The meeting was uncommonly crowded, and a great many of the moſt diſtinguiſhed characters, more particularly connected with Ireland, honoured it by their preſence. In thus patronizing an inſtitution ſo laudable, they certainly, at the ſame time, did honour to themſelves.

At ſix o'clock, about 400 ſat down to table in the great hall, and the greateſt conviviality and harmony prevailed throughout the evening. After the cloth was removed, the children who have been maintained and educated by the ſociety, were led in proceſſion through the room. A more gratifying ſpectacle cannot poſſibly be conceived. They had been all newly clothed; they looked healthy and robuſt, and afforded, from their decent appearance, the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that they will become uſeful members of ſociety. Had it not been for this inſtitution, they never would have been reſcued from want and wretchedneſs, and would have been ſoon initiated in all the vices of the capital. While the breaſts of the ſpectators were ſtill warm, the ſtewards made their round, and the ſum of 243l. was collected by them. The ſecretary intimated that, in addition to this, the ſubſcriptions amounted to about 1400l. and that the funds of the ſociety are in the moſt flouriſhing ſtate.

After 'The King,' 'The Prince of Wales.' 'The Navy and Army,' and ſeveral other loyal toaſts had been drank, 'The Earl of Armagh' was given amid loud burſts of applauſe.

His royal highneſs returned the ſociety thanks for the honour they had done him, and aſſured them he would ever take a lively intereſt in the proſperity of Ireland, and the welfare of that inſtitution.

Lord Moira's health was afterward drank with the greateſt enthuſiaſm.

After hearing a number of excellent ſongs from Incledon, Dignum, Johnſon, and Suett, and appointing the office bearers for the enſuing year, the company broke up, highly pleaſed with the manner in which they had paſſed the evening.

MARCH 19.

Tueſday a general court of proprietors of Eaſt-India ſtock was held at the India houſe. The minutes of the laſt general courts having been read, the chairman acquainted the court, that the court of directors having conſidered, with the utmoſt regret, a letter they had received from the right honourable Henry Dundas, intimating his intention of relinquiſhing the ſituation of preſident of the board of commiſſioners for the affairs of India, and the court feeling the ſtrongeſt inclination to give ſome teſtimony of the high ſenſe they entertain of the eſſential benefit the company had derived from the unremitted exertion of that right hon. gentleman's abilities in that ſtation for upward of ſixteen years, in addition to the important ſervices he rendered to the company previous to that period, they had unanimouſly reſolved,

'That he be requeſted to accept, during the exiſtence of the company's preſent limitation of their excluſive trade, of an annuity of two thouſand pounds,

to be paid to him, his executors, or aſſigns.

The ſaid reſolution of the court of directors was then read, in conformity to the 19th ſection of the 6th chapter of the company's bye-laws. The court was numerouſly attended, and a long converſation enſued, highly complimentary to the ability and integrity of the right honourable gentleman, when the court unanimouſly confirmed the reſolution of the court of directors.

MARCH 20.

On Thurſday the 12th inſtant, at noon, Inverneſs exhibited the moſt awful ſcene that it is poſſible to conceive, in conſequence of the exploſion of ſeveral barrels of gunpowder, belonging to meſſrs. M'Intoſh, Ingliſh, and Wilſon, which had been lodged in a cellar in a lane in the centre of the town; ſo that the deſtruction and devaſtation is univerſal. Not a houſe has eſcaped its effects in a greater or leſſer degree.—The houſes immediately adjoining have been razed to the foundation; others have been unroofed, and the walls driven in, and the windows of hundreds ſhattered in a thouſand pieces. But, alas! this melancholy event is rendered ſtill more ſhocking, by the lamentable fate of miſs Fraſer, of Finellan, and miſs Willet Fraſer, one of her ſiſters. The latter was inſtantaneouſly killed in paſſing the lane, and miſs Fraſer is ſince dead. Three women, and two children, were buried in the ruins. The materials of the houſe, having been blown to an immenſe height in every direction, fell with dreadful violence, and wounded a great many people, but few dangerouſly. The roofs of houſes at a conſiderable diſtance have alſo been greatly damaged. The Hunt-houſe is much injured; one of the wings ſo much ſhattered, that it is about to be taken down. The ſhock was felt for many miles, and afforded too perfect an idea of an earthquake, with its direſt effects.

MARCH 21.

It is with much concern, we announce the total loſs of his majeſty's ſhip Invincible, of ſeventy-four guns, captain Rennie; which ran aground off the Norfolk coaſt. The ſand bank on which this melancholy accident happened, is called the Ridge, lying to the eaſtward of Hammond's Knowl, and is ſituate about fourteen miles from Winterton. Dreadful to relate, the number of human beings who periſhed on this occaſion, amounts to upward of 400, including the captain, and the greater part of the officers; 195 only, out of the whole of the crew and paſſengers, having been ſaved from the wreck. Rear-admiral Totty, who was proceeding in the Invincible to join the North Sea fleet, is happily among the ſurvivors. He arrived in town on Thurſday afternoon, and immediately waited on the lords of the admiralty.

Of this truly lamentable event the following are the moſt intereſting particulars:

The Invincible got clear of Yarmouth Roads about twelve o'clock, on Monday morning, and ſtruck upon the fatal bank, between two and three in the afternoon. In this ſituation ſhe remained near three hours, when the mizen-maſt went by the board, and the main-maſt was immediately after cut away. The ſhip, to the infinite joy of the crew, then dropped from about 3½ into 17 fathom water, where, however, unfortunately loſing her rudder, ſhe ſoon became unmanageable, and was again driven upon the bank. A fiſhing ſmack now approached the wreck; on which two boats belonging to the Invincible were ordered out. On board of one of theſe, the admiral, the purſer, four midſhipmen, three of the admiral's ſervants, and ſix or eight ſeamen, reached the fiſhing ſmack in ſafety, as did alſo the other boat full of people. Both of them immediately returned to the ſhip, but on reapproaching the ſmack, one was forced away, and every perſon on board would inevitably have periſhed, had not a collier, which happened to be paſſing at this critical moment, happily picked them all up. This veſſel afterward afforded every aſſiſtance that humanity urged, or that ſhe was capable of giving, and was the means of ſaving the lives of many of the crew.—The fiſhing ſmack, with the admiral on board, being unable to afford the leaſt aſſiſtance to the ſhip, remained at anchor during the whole of Monday night. On the approach of day, the maſter of this veſſel expreſſed an unwillingneſs to go any nearer the wreck; but admiral Totty, in direct oppoſition to him, cauſed the cable to be cut, and immediately proceeded to the ſhip. Melancholy however to relate, while he was doing every thing of which human exertion is capable, to aſſiſt the unhappy people on board, the wreck once more got into deep water, and gradually ſunk, to the infinite diſtreſs of the admiral and the other ſpectators, who were nearly frantic with grief, at this tremendous ſcene of human miſery and deſtruction. While the ſhip was thus ra-

pidly going down, the launch was hove out;—as many of the crew as ſhe could poſſibly hold, inſtantly jumped on board, and had only time to clear the poop, when the veſſel, with upward of 400 ſouls, entirely diſappeared, and went to the bottom. A number of the unhappy ſufferers attempted to go on board the already overladen launch, but as no more could be permitted to enter, without the certain loſs of the whole, they were ſtruck away with the oars, and in a few ſeconds became wholly ingulphed in the pitileſs waters.

Captain Rennie, after the ſhip had ſunk, attempted to ſwim to the launch, and after a ſevere exertion got within reach of the oars, when, exhauſted with fatigue, and unable to make any farther effort, he calmly reſigned himſelf to his fate. Lifting up his hands, as if to implore the bleſſing of heaven, and immediately after placing them upon his face, he wept directly down without another ſtruggle. Thus periſhed a brave and meritorious officer, whoſe eminent virtues as a man enſured him the eſteem of all who knew him, and whoſe profeſſional fame, had he ſurvived, bid fair to render him an ornament to his country. All the other commiſſioned officers of the ſhip, except lieutenants Tucker and Quaſh, together with all the officers of marines, and moſt of their men, likewiſe went to the bottom.

About ſeventy or eighty of the crew were ſaved by means of the launch, the whole of whom had aſſembled upon the forecaſtle; but all thoſe who remained in the poop were loſt.—The total number of human beings who thus found a watery grave amounts to upward of 400, among whom were ſeveral paſſengers, on their way to join other ſhips belonging to the North Sea fleet. The number ſaved, including officers, is ſtated at 195.

This afflicting diſaſter is attributed ſolely to the ignorance of the pilot. He belonged to Harwich, and was taken on board at Sheerneſs. Inſtead of taking the ſhip through the ordinary channel from Yarmouth, he ſteered her through the narrow paſſage of the Cockle; and when ſhe ran upon the ſands, he inſiſted that the fatal ſpot was not laid down in any chart. In this point, however, he was ſoon confuted by the gunner of one of the ſhips of admiral Parker's fleet, who was only a paſſenger on board the Invincible. This man ſoon convinced the pilot of his error, by ſhowing him the exact ſpot diſtinctly marked. But the pilot is among the numerous ſufferers, and, in common charity, death muſt now be conſidered as having expiated all his faults. When the mizen-maſt went over board, he alſo fell from the deck, and was never after ſeen.

The Lively cutter was for ſeveral hours within ſight of the wreck, but was unable to afford the diſtreſſed people on board the leaſt aſſiſtance. A boat from Winterton was very active on the occaſion.

The Invincible had on board, excluſively of her own guns and ſtores, a large quantity of heavy ordnance, with ſhot and ammunition, &c. for the uſe of the gunboats and floating batteries which might have been neceſſary in the Baltic. The ſhip ſtruck on the ſand ridge while ſhe was going at the rate of eight knots an hour.

Both at the inſtant of the ſhock, and until the ſinking of the ſhip, the utmoſt order was obſerved on board, and the ſubordination was in every reſpect as complete as if the veſſel was not threatened with the leaſt danger.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

THE Zeeyraght and Zeelaſt of 22 guns each, by the Orpheus.

Two Dutch prows, with ſix guns, by La Virginie.

Vrow Helena of eight guns, the brig Helena of 12 guns, and the Braack, of 10 guns, by La Virginie.

Hertzoy de Brunſwick of 28 guns, the Dolphin brig of 14 guns, a brig of ſix guns, and the Underneming of ſix guns, by the Arrogant and Orpheus.

L'Uni privateer of 32 guns, by the Arrogant.

Santa Victoria of ſix guns, by the Netley.

Buonaparte privateer of 14 guns, by the Nimble.

Moucheron privateer of 16 guns, by the Revolutionnaire.

Eſpoir privateer of 14 guns, by the Lord Nelſon.

Bienvenu of 14 guns, by the Cambourg.

La Vengeur of two guns, by the Swan cutter.

La Juſte of 14 guns, by the Amelia.

L'Optimiſte privateer of 14 guns, by the Favorite.

Le General Baſſieres of 10 guns, by the Huſſar.

BIRTHS.

LADY of Henry Hulton, eſq. a daughter.

Lady of ſir Home Popham, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

WILLIAM Maurice Gilliefs, eſq. of Tunbridge Wells, to miſs Marianne O'Keeffe, of Upper Conway-ſtreet.

Lieutenant-colonel Erſkine, to lady Louiſa Paget, third daughter to the earl of Uxbridge.

Lord Morpeth, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Carliſle, to lady Georgiana Cavendiſh, daughter of the duke of Devonſhire.

William Miniſh, eſq. of Mile-end-road, to Mrs. Wood, of Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bedford ſquare.

John Joſeph Henry, eſq. of Stratton, in Kildare, to lady Emily Fitzgerald, ſecond daughter of the duke of Leinſter.

Rev. H. P. Stacy, of Hammerſmith, to miſs Amelia Grimes.

DEATHS.

HER royal highneſs Philippina Charlotte, ducheſs dowager of Brunſwick.

Lady Charlotte Holwell Carr, daughter of the earl of Errol.

Ralph Heathcote, eſq. plenipotentiary to the elector of Cologne.

Mrs. Johnſtone, widow of general Johnſtone.

Colonel John Darby, aged 78.

Francis Biddulph, eſq. banker.

Lady Newhaven, relict of the late lord Newhaven.

Lady Harriet Bennett, daughter of the earl of Tankerville.

Sir John Call, bart. M. P.

Miſs Simpſon, eldeſt daughter of lady Anne Simpſon.

John Holliday, eſq. of Lincoln's inn.

Captain David Hotchkis, of the navy.

Mrs. Eliſabeth Victor, of Park-ſtreet, aged 85.

Hon. John Bulkeley Coventry Bulkeley, aged 77.

Mr. Peter Wirgman, of St. James'-ſtreet, aged 84.

Lady Cope, wife of the Rev. ſir Richard Cope, bart.

Mrs. Planta, of St. James'-palace, aged 86.

Mr. Solomon Brown, of Richmond, aged 83.

Mr. John Vowell, aged 94.

PROMOTIONS.

PHILIP earl of Hardwicke—a privy-counſellor.

Right hon. George Legge (commonly called viſcount Lewiſham)—a privy-counſellor.

Philip earl of Hardwicke—Lieutenant-general and general governor of Ireland.

Right hon. Robert lord Hobart—one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Right hon. Henry Addington, John Smith, and Charles Pybus, eſq. George Thynne, eſq. (commonly called lord George Thynne) and Nathaniel Bond, eſq.—Commiſſioners for executing the office of treaſurers of his majeſty's exchequer.

Right hon. Henry Addington—Chancellor and under treaſurer of the exchequer.

Right hon. Charles Yorke—Secretary at war.

Right hon. Thomas Steele, and the right hon. lord Glenbervie—Paymaſters general of the forces.

Alterations in the Liſt of SHERIFFS.

CHESHIRE—John Scott Waring, of Ince, eſq. in the room of William Rigby, of Oldfield, eſq.

Monmouthſhire—Thomas Williams, of Chepſtow, eſq.

Warwickſhire—John Stanton, of Kenelworth, eſq.

Caermarthenſhire—Edward R. Shewn, of Stradey, eſq. in the room of Sir John Stepney, of Llanelly, bart.

Cardiganſhire—John Williams, of Caſtle Hill, eſq. in the room of Robert Lloyd, of Abermaide, eſq.

Glamorganſhire—Robert Jones, of Fonmon Caſtle, eſq. in the room of Llewellin Traherne, of St. Hilary, eſq.

Radnorſhire—Hugh Powell Evans, of Noyadd, eſq. in the room of Thomas Hodges Fowler, of Abbeycwmhire, eſq.

Denbighſhire—John Meredith Moſtyn, of Segroit, eſq. in the room of Edward Lloyd Lloyd, of Penylan, eſq.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

FEBRUARY 28.

W. SHALDERS, Church-ſtreet, Bethnel-green, victualler.

W. Knibb, Maidenhead-bridge, Berkſhire, innkeeper.

E. Neaple, Grantham, in Lincolnſhire, mercer.

R. Gouldſmith, New Bond-ſtreet, embroiderer.

C. Baker the younger, Preſcott, Devonſhire, tanner.

J. Howitt, and F. Weldon, Whitecroſs-place, Finſbury-ſquare, dealers.

W. Butler, Whitecroſs-ſtreet, brazier.

F. M. Fiſher, Barbican, jeweller.

R. Beaumont, and S. Vickerman, Healy-butts, Yorkſhire, clothiers.

M. H. Moſes, Birmingham, factor.

R. Durant, North Tawton, in Devonſhire, butcher.

E. Williams, Liverpool, baker.

J. Wallace, and W. Hawes, Hanwell, ſoap-makers.

R. Thompſon, Wood-ſtreet, Cheapſide, ſilk-manufacturer.
R. Farr, Alderſgate-ſtreet, victualler.
B. Wraith, Great Bolton, Lancaſhire, cotton-ſpinner.
J. Wadman, Bridport, in Devonſhire, linen-draper.
T. Hanmer, Briſtol, grocer.
T. Rees, Llanbadarn Treſeglwys, in Cardigan, ſhopkeeper.
D. Lilley, Mancheſter, manufacturer.

MARCH 3.

J. Friend, Bermondſey-ſtreet, Surry, fellmonger.
T. Martin, Old Change, warehouſeman.
J. Hutchinſon, Birmingham, factor.
J. Clarke, Staunton, in Worceſterſhire, vintner.
J. Judge, King-ſtreet, Surry, currier.
J. Roule, Sudbury, linen-draper.
T. Norris the younger. Lincoln's-inn-fields, cabinet-maker.

MARCH 7.

J. Higgott, Birmingham, teaman.
H. Willmott, and S. Willmott, Beaminſter, Dorſetſhire, tanners.
L. Kidd, Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, flax-dreſſer.
J. C. Holman, Mount-ſtreet, money-ſcrivener.
R. Baron, Liverpool, money-ſcrivener.
S. Field, and A. Field, Bermondſey-ſtreet, Southwark, woolſtaplers.
T. Moſcropp, Little Bolton, cotton-manufacturer.
T. Robinſon, Liverpool, timber-merchant.
W. Sheldrick, Witham, Eſſex, coach-maſter.
W. Hinton, Weſt Harding-ſtreet, engraver.
L. Eglin, Coleman-ſtreet, merchant.

MARCH 10.

J. Groves, Liverpool, mariner.
H. Hunt, Briſtol, tea-dealer.
W. Emett, Mancheſter, plumber.
J. Lane, Stratford, Eſſex, corn chandler.
J. Delamain, Kingſton-upon-Hull, merchant.
H. Piſtor, Abchurch-lane, merchant.
J. C. Loft, and T. Loft, Friday-ſtreet, Cheapſide, warehouſemen.
W. Sellers, Briſtol, ſpinning-machine-maker.
W. Ireland, N. Calvert, J. Overend, and C. Tomlinſon, Lancaſter, merchants.
J. Sayce, Lower Thames-ſtreet, ſack-maker.
S. Morley, Fleet-ſtreet, taylor.

MARCH 14.

J. Ricketts, Briſtol, toymaker.
R. Sims, Walworth, Surry, grocer.
F. C. A. Sandwell, Devizes, Wiltſhire, clothier.
D. Weſt, Windſor, Berkſhire, coal-merchant.
C. Eldridge, Cheltenham, Glouceſterſhire, victualler.
G. Long, Mancheſter, cotton-manufacturer.
M. Eadon, Mancheſter, merchant.
A. Rayner, Mancheſter, merchant.
J. Aſhworth, Southmolton-ſtreet, warehouſeman.
J. Rich, Briſtol, breeches-maker.
T. Merritt, Glouceſter, faleſman.
G. Williams, Saffron-hill, ſhoemaker.
R. Sharples, Anderton, Lancaſhire, ſhopkeeper.
J. Fiddy, Colliſhall, Norfolk, corn-merchant.
G. Pugh, and J. Davis, Old Fiſh-ſtreet, chymiſts.

MARCH 17.

G. W. Seaborn, Narrow-ſtreet, Limehouſe, maſt-maſter.
G. Turner, Strand, ſhoemaker.

MARCH 21.

W. Smith, Oxendon-ſtreet, taylor.
G. Brown, Old Cavendiſh-ſtreet, taylor.
J. Walker, King-ſtreet, Southwark, ſhoemaker.
R. Roberts, and W. Williams, Great Diſtaff-lane, warehouſemen.
J. Dow, Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, haberdaſher.
Ralph Laſcelles, South Audley-ſtreet, Grofvenor-ſquare, taylor.
W. Smith, Mile-end, inſurance broker.
W. Popple, Kingſton-upon-Hull, brewer.
J. Sharples, and James Sharples, Anderton, Lancaſhire, manufacturers.
J. Waring, Durham-place, Surry, merchant.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

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March 14, 1800.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	168	10	102	0	75	5	50	5
Surry	167	2	——		77	8	46	8
Hertford	148	10	——		74	0	45	6
Bedford	150	4	120	9	82	8	41	6
Huntingdon	160	0	——		87	8	39	0
Northampton	140	0	——		82	8	37	4
Rutland	138	6	——		84	6	40	0
Leiceſter	148	1	——		95	9	47	2
Nottingham	138	8	108	0	86	2	52	8
Derby	145	4	——		83	6	49	4
Stafford	162	9	——		94	8	57	4
Salop	174	4	121	2	113	2	55	0
Hereford	170	7	108	8	102	4	47	1
Worceſter	184	8	——		108	6	53	1
Warwick	178	1	——		111	6	57	2
Wilts	166	4	——		87	6	47	4
Berks	171	6	——		81	9	46	0
Oxford	171	6	——		87	1	49	5
Bucks	156	0	——		81	0	44	2
Brecon	166	4	——		116	9	43	4
Montgomery	155	2	128	0	97	10	52	1
Radnor	149	0	——		101	0	40	3

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	159	0	77	6	73.	8	43	8
Kent	161	10	——		70	0	43	9
Suſſex	164	0	——		72	8	45	0
Suffolk	160	1	80	0	02	2	42	4
Cambridge	151	5	——		67	2	33	5
Norfolk	144	0	126	0	02	10	40	5
Lincoln	124	11	——		79	5	40	2
York	133	2	110	9	72	1	44	8
Durham	140	9	108	0	83	10	44	7
Northumberland	136	8	112	0	73	6	-	——
Cumberland	145	3	113	0	93	5	69	5
Weſtmorland	150	2	121	8	99	8	83	6
Lancaſter	157	0	——		95	6	01	7
Cheſter	156	0	——		104	1	63	6
Flint	None		bro't		forSale		-	——
Denbigh	153	5	——		107	5	56	0
Angleſea	None		bro't		forSale		-	——
Carnarvon	136	8	——		93	0	45	0
Merioneth	147	1	——		112	0	48	0
Cardigan	128	6	——		82	0	32	1
Pembroke	127	6	——		78	8	37	10
Carmarthen	133	0	——		96	0	37	7
Glamorgan	153	11	——		106	8	44	6
Glouceſter	187	1	——		93	0	49	1
Somerſet	176	11	——		106	1	41	6
Monmouth	179	3	——		104	2	-	——
Devon	159	2	——		91	4	39	1
Cornwall	137	5	——		85	2	38	
Dorſet	172	9	——		100	1	52	
Hants	173	5	100	0	81	8	46	6

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	155	2	109	2	89	5	46	8

March 26—Peck Loaf, 7s 2d.

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[For the Explanation, see Vol. 92, Page 111.]

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 0,59
1	8	29,98	46	49	73	5	SW 1	
	2	29,94	48	50	72	5	SW 2	
2	8	30,04	46,5	48,5	74	h	S 1	. fine: cloudy
	2	30,04	48	50	73	5	S 2	
3	8	30,02	49	51	81	h	SSW 1	. little rain
	2	30,02	53,5	52	80	h	SW 2	
4	8	30,08	52	53,5	73	4	SW 3	. fine
	2	30,06	56	55	68	3	SW 3	. cloudy. little rain: fine
5	8	30,12	49,5	54	75	3	SW 1	. little rain. fine
	2	30,18	54,5	56	72	2	WSW 1	. cloudy night: little rain. fine
6	8	29,98	50	54,5	73	3	WSW 1	
	2	29,98	53	55	70	4	WNW 2	. more cloudy: fine
7	8	30,35	40	49,5	72	h	N 1	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,38	45	51	68	3	N 1	: clear
8	8	30,38	35,5	45	72	1	N 1	low fog. thick upward: fine. cloudy
	2	30,38	43	49,5	69	5	N 1	hazy. drizzly night
9	8	30,29	42	49	76	f	NE 1	drizzly. less fog
	2	30,32	42	49,5	72	5	E 1	
10	8	30,32	36,5	46	68	f	ENE 1	. fine: cloudy and little snow
	2	30,25	37,5	46	70	5	N 1	. little snow at times in the night
11	8	30,01	35,5	44,5	72	5	NNE 2	little snow at times
	2	29,99	36,5	44	71	5	NE 2	little snow. less cloudy night: fine
12	8	29,88	28,5	41	68	2	NNE 1	: cloudy and little snow.
	2	29,75	34,5	42	67	5	NE 2	. snow at and in the night
13	8	29,75	29,5	39	73	h	NE 1	continual gentle snow
N	2	29,80	33	40	72	3	NE 1	snow, fair eve: fine
14	8	29,83	30	39	72	3	NE 1	: cloudy and little snow
	2	29,79	32,5	39,5	68	5	NE 1	little snow. more wind at night
15	8	29,67	32,5	38	70	5	NE 2	hazy
	2	29,65	35,5	40,5	72	5	NE 2	. little sleet at night
16	8	29,71	34	40	69	f	NNE 1	. little sleet
	2	29,72	36	41	68	h	NNE 1	
17	8	29,75	35	41	71	5	ENE 1	: fine
	2	29,81	41	43	69	3	E 1	hazy. clear night
18	8	29,98	32	42,5	72	1	NE 1	little foggy
	2	29,99	37,5	44	68	3	N 1	hazy. thick upward at night
19	8	29,88	34,5	42	68	h	W 1	. cloudy
	2	29,71	37,5	43	69	5	S 2	. more wind and drizzly night
20	8	29,57	40	44	70	3	WNW 3	. less wind
	2	29,77	45	46	64	3	WNW 1	. windy night and little rain at times
21	8	29,62	43,5	46,5	75	h	SSE 1	drizzly and gentle rain: chiefly fair
	2	29,45	51	50	78	5	SW 1	. little rain at times. fine night and more wind
22	8	29,36	40,5	46,5	74	f	WSW 0	. little rain at times
	2	29,32	42	49	73	5	SW 1	. chiefly fine but little rain at times
23	8	29,43	37,5	46,5	73	2	WSW 1	hazy
	2	29,43	44,5	49	68	3	SW 1	hazy. cloudless eve: cloudy
24	8	29,52	35	44,5	73	4	SW 1	foggy. fine
	2	29,76	44,5	48	68	2	W 1	. more cloudy night: little rain
25	8	29,79	43,5	47,5	77	5	SW 2	. little rain
	2	29,69	51	50	78	5	SW 3	. little rain. fine night. less wind
26	8	29,97	44	49	70	2	W 1	little foggy
	2	30,18	50	51	64	3	W 2	. cloudless eve
27	8	30,23	37	46,5	73	3	W 1	foggy
	2	30,17	48	49,5	68	3	SW 1	. cloudless night: cloudy
28	8	30,10	41,5	49	74	5	SW 1	foggy [fair
F	2	30,04	49	51,5	70	5	SSW 2	. much gentle rain and more wind: chiefly

PRICES of STOCKS, from FEBRUARY 26 to MARCH 27, 1801, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exchequer Bills.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.	Iriſh Lot. Tic.
26	——	56 ¾ ¼	55¾a56	76	90 ⅞	91 ¼	17 ⅜	——	184 ¾	55 ⅜	10 ⅞	3s. dif.	17 6 6	——
27	154	56 ¾ ¼	56a55¾	75 ⅝	90 ⅞	91 ½	17 ⅜	5 ⅝	184	55 ⅜	10 ¾	5s.	17 6 6	——
28	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——
2	——	56 ½ ⅝	56a55¾	75 ½	90 ⅞	91 ⅜	17 ½	5 ⅜	——	55 ½	10 ¾	6s.	——	——
3	153 ½	56 ⅝ ⅜	55⅝a⅞	75 ½	90 ⅞	91 ½	17 ½	5 ⅜	shut.	55 ½	10 ¾	——	——	——
4	shut.	shut.	55⅝a⅞	75 ½	90 ½	91 ½	17 ⅜	5 ½	——	55 ½	10 ¾	6s.	——	——
5	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	75 ⅝	90 ¾	91 ¾	shut.	shut.	——	55 ½	10 ¾	4s.	——	——
6	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	shut.	91 ¼	shut.	—— ——	—— ——	——	55 ½	10 ¾	4s.	——	——
7	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	——	——	10 ⅞	4s.	——	——
9	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	——	55 ½	——	——	——	——
10	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	——	91 ⅛	—— ——	——	——	185½ op	55 ⅜	10 ⅞	4s.	——	——
11	——	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	——	55 ⅜	10 ⅞	5s.	——	——
12	154	—— ——	55⅝a⅞	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	186	55	10 ⅞	5s.	——	——
13	153 ½	—— ——	55¾a56	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	186	55 ½	10 ⅞	5s.	——	——
14	——	—— ——	56a55½	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	186 ½	55 ⅜	11	4s.	——	——
16	153	—— ——	56a56⅛	——	91 ⅛	——	——	——	——	——	——	3s.	——	——
17	——	—— ——	56⅛a⅜	——	91 ¼	——	——	——	187 ½	55 ¾	11	3s.	——	——
18	——	—— ——	56⅛a⅜	——	92 ⅛	——	——	——	——	56 ⅛	——	3s.	——	——
19	——	—— ——	56⅜a½	——	92 ⅛	—— ——	——	——	187	56 ⅛	11	3s.	——	——
20	——	—— ——	56⅜a½	——	92 ⅛	——	——	——	——	56	——	4s.	——	——
21	154	—— ——	56½a57	——	92 ⅛	——	——	——	——	56 ⅛	——	4s.	——	——
23	156	—— ——	57¼	——	93	——	——	——	189	56 ⅛	11 ⅛	4s.	——	——
24	156 ¾	—— ——	57⅜a¾	——	93 ½	——	——	——	——	57	11 ⅛	5s.	——	——
25	——	—— ——	57⅞a58⅜	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——	——
26	——	—— ——	58⅜a½	——	93 ⅛	——	——	——	——	57 ¼	11 ¼	——	——	——
27	——	—— ——	58½a⅞	——	96	—— ——	——	——	——	57 ⅜	11 ¼	——	——	——

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